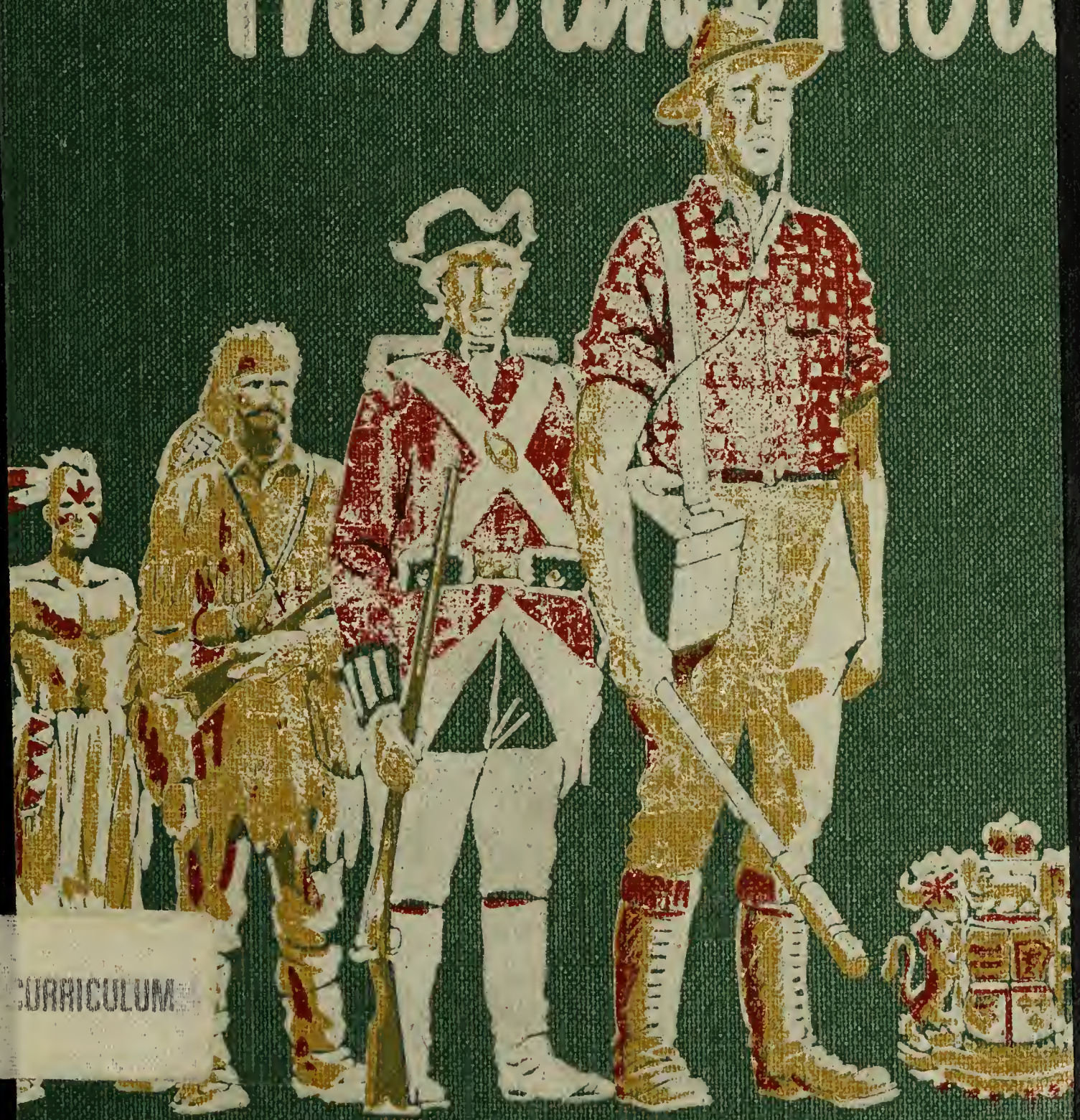
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THEN AND NOW

By Aileen Garland

Based on

A FIRST BOOK
OF
CANADIAN HISTORY

By W. Stewart Wallace

Illustrated by Robert Banks

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY OF CANADA LIMITED

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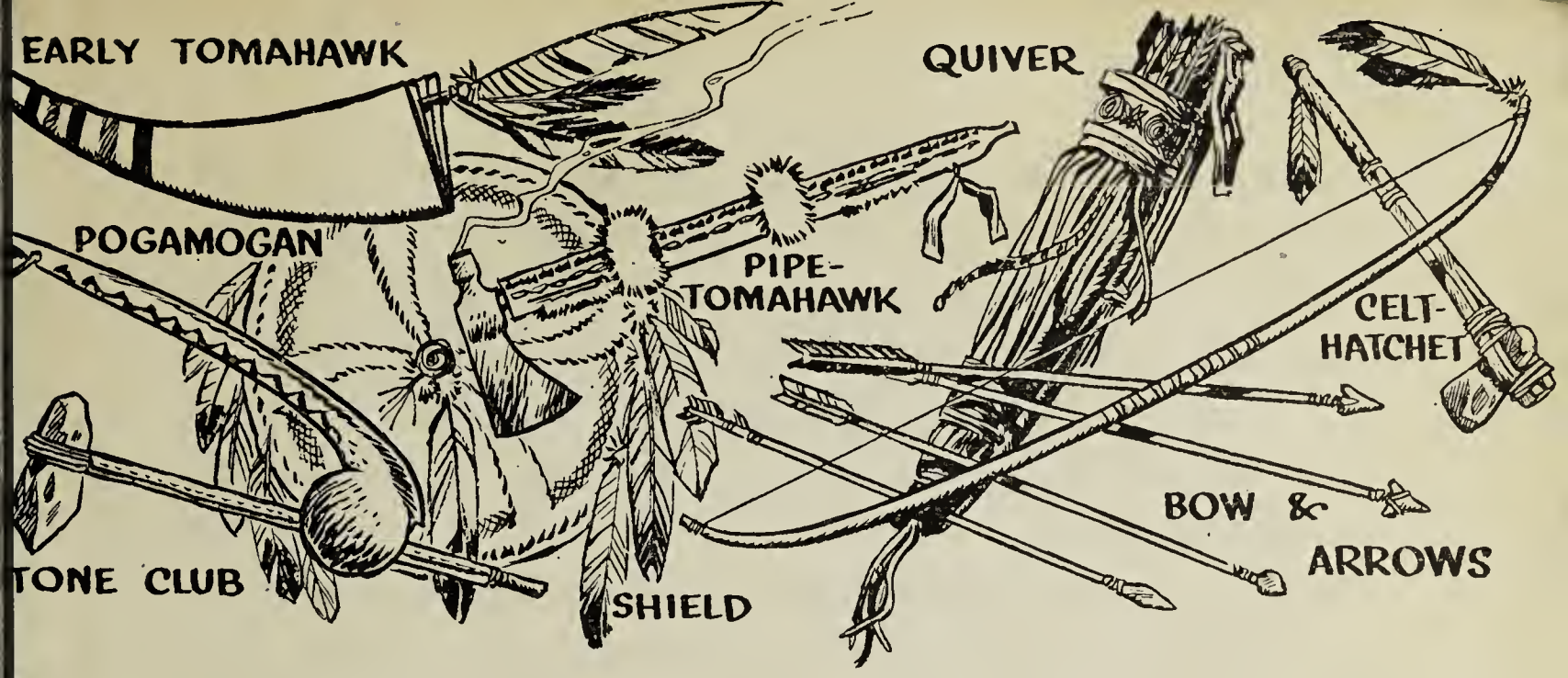
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Canada

THEN AND NOW


BANKS



I. *The First Visitors to Canada*

1. The First Canadians

"The memory of the Red Man,
How can it pass away,
While his names of music linger
On each mount and stream and bay?"

RICHARD HUNTINGTON: *The Indian Names of Acadia*

THE INDIANS WERE HERE LONG BEFORE THE WHITE MAN CAME

No one knows for certain who the first visitors to Canada were, or where they came from, or why they came. We do know that when the white men landed on the eastern coast of America they found tribes of copper-skinned people who had been on this continent for a very long time. When Christopher Columbus landed in San Salvador in 1492, thinking he had reached the East Indies, he called the natives Indians. Although Columbus did not live to realize his mistake, it was not many years before other explorers knew that America was not India but a new continent. Nevertheless the name which Columbus gave to the inhabitants of the new land persisted, and to this day they are called Indians.

We believe that long, long ago the ancestors of the Indian tribes came from Asia across Bering Strait to Alaska. Perhaps some fisherman, driven out to sea by storms, first saw the coast of this new land. It may be that the tribes on the coast of Asia had to flee from their enemies. It is even possible that there was once an isthmus connecting the two continents.

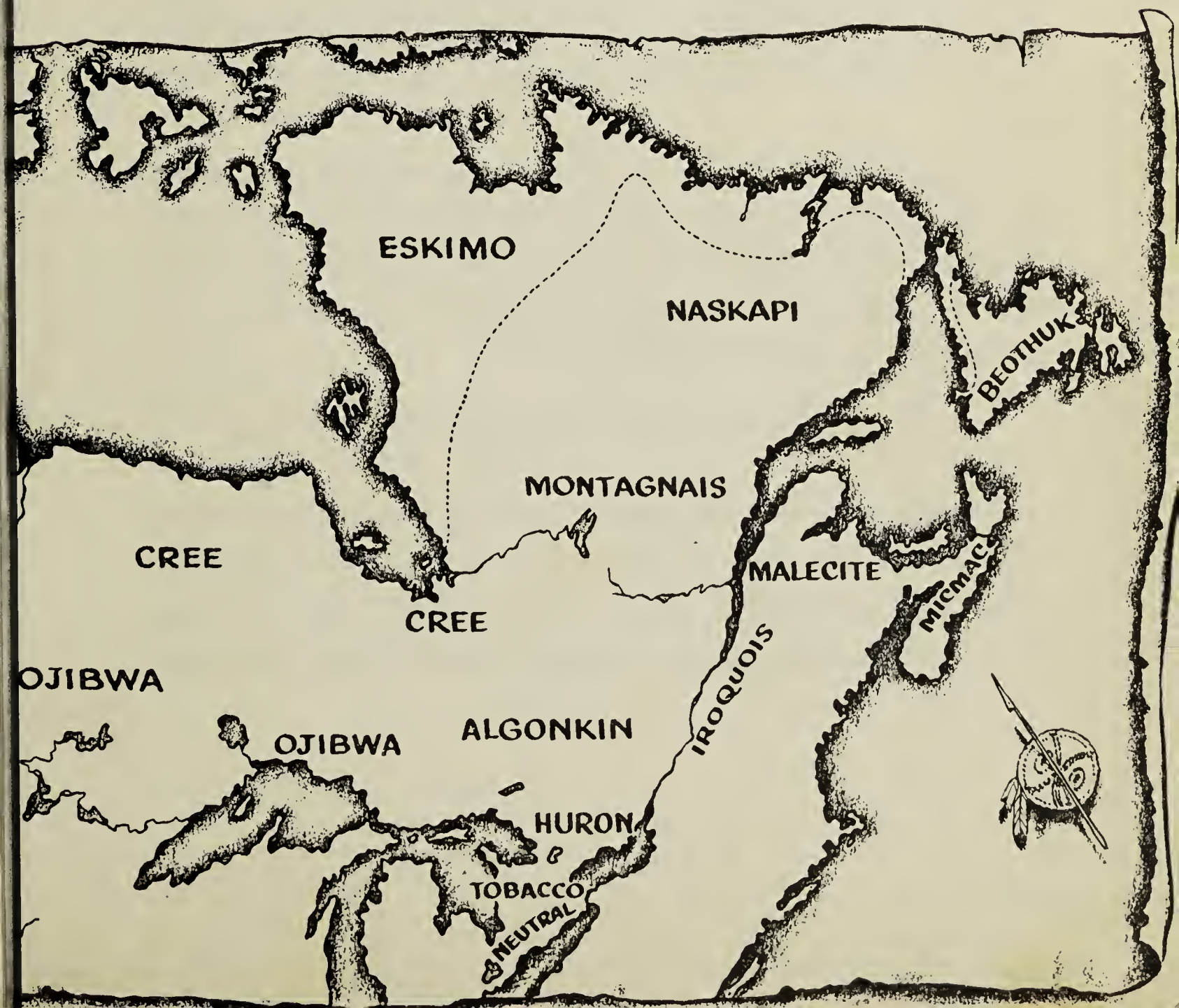
Gradually the newcomers moved up the Yukon River and across into the valley of the Mackenzie. In time they spread across the whole of North and South America. As they travelled farther south they found milder climates, more wild fruit, better fishing and hunting. They had to use whatever they were able to find in the district in which they lived, or move on to a new area. If they could not provide themselves with the weapons and the food they needed, they starved.



It is very difficult to learn much about the early history of the Indians. They have left no written records except a few examples of picture writing on rocks or in caves. Every tribe, however, had legends which were handed down from father to son. Historians are studying these legends and trying to interpret them. Scholars are studying burial mounds and village sites which have been uncovered in order to learn more about the life and customs of these earliest inhabitants of our country.

Many of the early explorers wrote descriptions of the Indians. Here is what Cartier wrote about the Indians he met on the Gaspé peninsula.

"They can with truth be called savages, as there are no people poorer than these in the world. I believe they do not possess anything to the value of five pennies, apart



from their canoes and nets. Their whole clothing consists of a small skin, with which they cover their loins . . . They have their heads completely shaven, except for a lock of hair on the top of the head, which they allow to grow as long as a horse's tail; they tie it to their heads with small leather cords. Their dwellings are their canoes. They turn these upside down and lie under them on the bare ground. They eat their meat almost raw, merely warming it over coals. The same with fish . . . They showed us by signs how they prepare the foods they have and how these grow. They will not eat anything that is salted. They are great thieves and will steal all they can."

This was a very poor and backward tribe. Many of the Indians had a much higher standard of living.

Years later, Champlain painted a very different picture of the Indians he met at the mouth of the Saguenay. He noted their cheerfulness and laughter, their strong well-proportioned bodies, their amazing endurance, and especially their intelligence. He admired their birch-bark canoes which he realized were very well suited to their needs.

"I think," he declared, "that if anyone would show them how to live and teach them to till the ground, and other matters, they would learn very well. I assure you that plenty of them have good judgment, and answer very properly any question put to them."

THEIR TOOLS AND WEAPONS

Although a few tribes had learned to pound soft copper into knives, the Indians did not know how to combine it with harder metals to make strong sharp knives or axes. Most of their weapons and tools had to be fashioned out

of wood, stone, or bone. Bows and arrows were made of wood. Knives, hatchets, clubs, spear-heads, and arrow-heads were usually made of stone, though in the far north some of the knives had blades of beaver teeth, or caribou antlers, and on the Pacific coast the blades might be made out of sharp shells. Since all these weapons took a very long time to make, it is not surprising that the Indians were ready to trade almost anything they had for the knives and hatchets the white men brought with them.

THEIR FOOD

The Iroquois and Huron tribes, who lived in the valley of the St. Lawrence River, learned to till the soil. Since they had neither spades nor ploughs, they scratched the surface of the soil with pointed sticks before planting their seed. They grew Indian corn, beans, pumpkins, and tobacco. But they thought they were having poor fare unless their braves were able to bring home plenty of game and fish.

The wandering tribes had to depend entirely on the game they could kill, the fish they could catch, and the wild fruits and nuts they could find in the woods or on the plains. If fish and game were scarce, they starved. The northern Indians, the Athapascans, in the Mackenzie Valley, depended on the caribou, the musk-ox, the Arctic hare, and the wild fowl. The prairie Indians found their chief source of food in the buffalo. The Indians of the wooded areas around the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River hunted the moose, the deer, the bear, and all the smaller animals and wild fowl of the forest.



Here are two early means of transportation —the horse and the *travois*

DIVISION OF LABOUR

Indian boys were carefully trained in the arts of hunting and fishing and fighting. Their lives and the lives of their tribe would some day depend on how well they had learned their lessons. The women and girls prepared the food, and tanned the skins for the clothing and for the tents. When the tribe moved from one hunting-ground to another, it was the women and girls who transported all the possessions of the tribe, carrying their burdens on their backs or dragging them on *travois* or toboggans. The men carried their weapons, ready at a moment's notice to defend the tribe from enemies.

THEIR HOMES

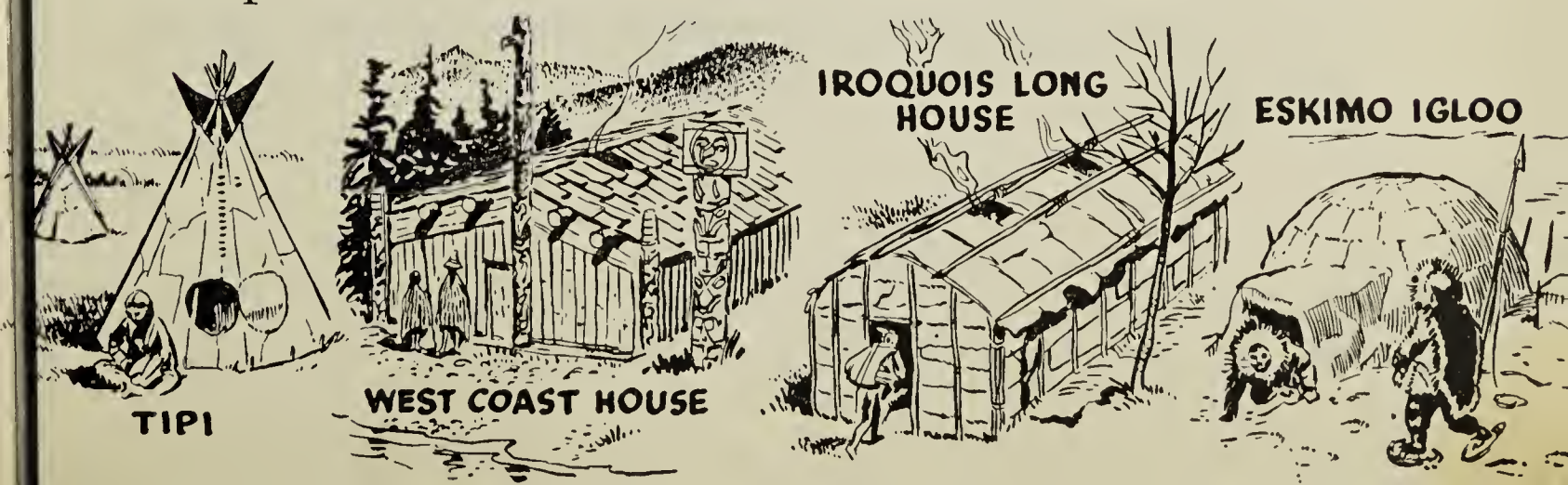
The Indians who lived where food was plentiful enjoyed a much higher standard of living than did those who wandered from place to place in search of game and fuel. For example, the West Coast Indians were much more fortunate than the other Indians of Canada. The climate was mild. Great shoals of salmon went up their rivers and streams every year and plenty of sea-otter and seals could be taken from the waters near their villages. These

Indians were able to establish permanent villages. They built their homes of cedar planks, often decorating the beams and uprights with elaborate carving. In front of each house they placed a great totem pole, carved and painted to tell the history of the family which dwelt there. They carved wooden masks for their ceremonial dances and even made figures sculptured from slate. Only a tribe which was able to secure the necessities of life without too much labour could spare time and effort for these arts.

The Indians of the prairie, the Blackfoot tribes, the Crees, and Assiniboines, lived in tipis made of caribou or buffalo skin or of bark stretched tight over a framework of poles. Sometimes an artist in the tribe painted designs on these tipis. When the tribe had to move to a new hunting-ground the tipis could be taken down easily and carried to the new camp.

The Indians of the wooded country around the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence, the Algonquin, Huron, and Iroquois tribes, used tipis, too. Sometimes, however, if a tribe was fortunate enough to find a patch of soil suitable for cultivation in an area where the hunting was good, a more permanent settlement was established. Then they built long houses, which, like modern apartment blocks, sheltered several families. When Champlain explored the Huron country, he visited some of these long houses. He reported:

"Their cabins are a kind of arbour or bower, covered with bark, approximately fifty or sixty yards long by twelve wide, with a passage ten or twelve feet broad down the middle from one end to the other. Along each side runs a bench four feet above the ground, where the inmates sleep in summer to avoid the innumerable fleas. In winter



they sleep close to the fire on mats, underneath the benches where it is warmer. They fill the hut with dry wood to burn at that season. A space is left at one end of the cabin for storing their corn, which they place in large bark barrels in the middle of the floor. Boards suspended overhead preserve their clothing, food, and other possessions from the numerous mice. There will be a dozen fires to each cabin, making two dozen families. The smoke circulates at will, causing much eye trouble, to which the natives are so subject that many become blind in their old age. There is no window in the cabin, and no opening except a place in the roof where the smoke finds an outlet."

THEIR CLOTHING

For clothing the Indians wore the skins of animals, chiefly of the deer and the caribou. Since people all over the world seem to want ornaments and fine clothes it is not surprising that the Indians did, too. Tribes that did not have to spend all their energy in obtaining food or fighting their enemies often decorated their costumes with feathers, or shells, or the claws of animals. Sometimes they embroidered their garments in artistic patterns with porcupine quills which had been dyed a bright colour. The West Coast Indians made shirts of pounded and woven bark.

THE ESKIMOS

The people who made their homes along the Arctic coast and in Greenland were very different in appearance, language, and customs from the Indian tribes. The Indians named them Eskimos, which means "eaters of raw meat". The name describes them properly, for before the white man came their diet was entirely meat and fish, usually eaten raw. In the cold barren land in which they lived, there were no wild fruits and berries to be found, and no grain grew.

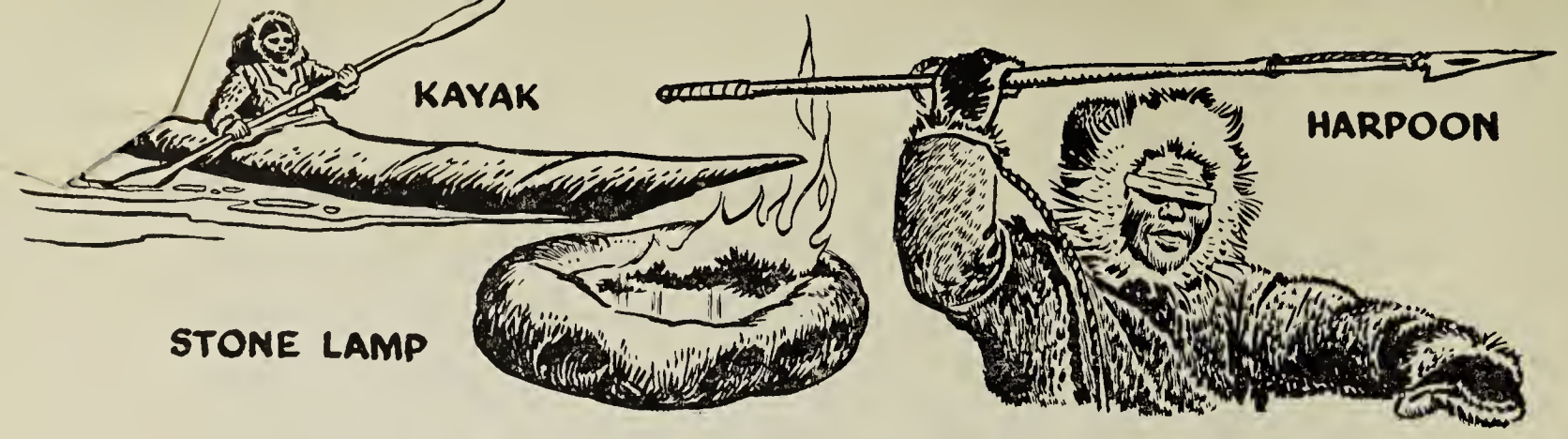
In winter the Eskimos hunted the seal, the walrus, and the polar bear. In summer they ventured inland to find caribou, musk-oxen, and the Arctic foxes of the northern plains. Their clothing was made from the skins of the animals they succeeded in killing. From the fat of their prey they made oil which they burned in stone lamps. These lamps, with wicks made of moss, supplied what heat and light the Eskimos enjoyed in their dwellings during the long dark days of winter. They made knives, harpoons, and fish-hooks from the bones of whales, seals, and walruses, and from the tusks of walruses and the horns of caribou. The bones of the larger animals supplied the framework for their tents and their kayaks.

In summer when the Eskimos travelled in search of game they carried tents of skin which they set up over a framework of bone. They had to use whatever material they could find. In a few places there were stones which could be used for the walls of a dwelling, and sometimes an Eskimo was fortunate enough to find driftwood on the shore which he could use for the walls of a cabin. But most of their winter homes were igloos made from blocks of snow.

The Eskimos were the first natives of America to come in contact with the white men. When the Norsemen came to Greenland, they found Eskimos settled there.

THE WHITE MEN LEARNED MANY THINGS FROM THE INDIANS AND THE ESKIMOS

There were many things that the people of Europe had learned which the Indians did not know. For example, the Indians had never learned to make and use a wheel. For people who moved, as they did, from place to place in search of new hunting-grounds, wheels would have been



most useful. They had no domestic animals, except the dog—no horses, or sheep, or cattle, or pigs. They had never seen sails on boats until the white men came.

There were, on the other hand, many things which the Indians and Eskimos had learned which the white men did not know. Even with their primitive weapons of wood and stone, the Eskimos and Indians were able to hunt and kill the animals they needed for food and clothing. Although the white men had better weapons, many of the early explorers and traders died of starvation because they were not as skilful in hunting as the natives were.

The Indians had invented the snowshoe, which made travel on foot possible through the deep snow. They had perfected the art of making light and strong birch-bark canoes. The Eskimos had learned to make their tiny kayaks and their larger umiaks of skins on a framework of bone. The first white men to try to explore this new land were helpless until they learned from the natives how to travel, how to make shelters for themselves, how to find the food they needed. Without the tipi, the canoe, and the snowshoe, the explorers could not have gone far.

The myths and legends of the Indians are a part of the heritage of our country. Our museums display the quill and shell embroidery of the eastern tribes, the totem poles, masks, and slate carvings of the West Coast Indians. Indian "names of music" linger in the names of rivers, lakes, provinces, cities, and towns throughout the country. Canada, Miramichi, Quebec, Ontario, Toronto, Manitoba,

Winnipeg, Saskatchewan, Assiniboine, Kootenay, Okanagan—all these and hundreds more come from Indian words.

THE INDIANS TO-DAY

There are over a hundred thousand Indians living in Canada to-day. It is estimated that there were twice as many when the French first came to this country. Thousands of Indians died from diseases which they caught from the white men, diseases unknown on this continent before the white men came. Epidemics of typhoid, tuberculosis, smallpox, and even measles destroyed whole bands of Indians. As the forests were cut down and the country filled with settlers, the wild life became very scarce. Many of the Indians, accustomed to winning a living from hunting and fishing, were unwilling to settle on the land and farm it.

The Canadian Government, realizing that some provision must be made for these unfortunate people, set up a department of the government called the Indian Affairs Branch to look after their welfare. Since it is no longer possible for a large number of people to make a living in Canada by hunting and fishing, the Indians must take up other ways of supporting themselves. It is the aim of the Indian Affairs Branch to help the Indians to become self-supporting in the modern world. Areas of land varying in size from a few acres to tracts of over five hundred square miles have been set aside for the use of the Indians. These are called Reserves. Indians are allowed to trap, hunt, and fish during the closed season when the white men are not allowed to do so. Those who live on the Reserves are given a small grant of money every year. Indian mothers receive family allowances for their children

and the officials of the Indian Affairs Branch state that the Indian women spend their money wisely on food and clothing for their children. Schools and medical care are provided by the government for the Indians on the Reserves.

There are also many citizens of Canada who, though descended from the Indians, do not live on the Reserves. Many of them fought bravely for their country during the World Wars. Many of them have good farms or good positions and are honoured in the communities in which they live. One who was born on the Six Nations Reserve of Ontario, Milton Martin, enlisted in the Canadian army and rose to be brigadier. He later became a judge in York County Court. Another, Frank Calder, who was elected to the Legislative Assembly in British Columbia in 1949 and re-elected in 1952, is the first Indian to take his place in a Canadian Legislative Assembly.

THE ESKIMOS TO-DAY

There are over eight thousand Eskimos in Canada to-day. Although they still depend mostly on hunting, trapping, and fishing for their living, they have learned to appreciate the goods they can get from the white men in exchange for their furs and walrus tusks. A few of them find jobs around the trading-posts and air-fields, and some make articles which they sell to traders. Some of them, who used to carve artistic designs on their bone weapons and tools, have discovered that ornaments carved from walrus tusks can be sold to tourists and to buyers for department stores. Many beautiful examples of Eskimo carvings are to be found in our Canadian museums. Nevertheless, if hunting is poor, or if the price of fur goes down, the Eskimos face hard times.

As more people went to live in the far north to open up mines, operate weather stations, and maintain airways, there was great danger that the supply of wild animals on which the Eskimos depended for food and clothing might disappear. The Canadian Government established large herds of reindeer near Aklavik to make up for these losses. The Eskimos, like the Indians, are allowed to hunt and trap in areas closed to white men. Family allowances are paid to Eskimo mothers, not in cash as in the rest of Canada, but in food and clothing. Missionary hospitals which have been established in the north get assistance from the government. It is not easy to provide education for tribes which move about from place to place, but the government is sending teachers into the north to teach the Eskimo children.



This Eskimo is spearing fish through a hole in the ice

2. The Norsemen

"Three weeks we westward bore,
And when the storm was o'er,
Cloud-like we saw the shore
Stretching to leeward."

HENRY W. LONGFELLOW: *The Skeleton in Armour*

Visitors to Greenland to-day can see the ruins of very old buildings still standing, gaunt and mysterious, in that desolate land. Experts who have studied them tell us that they are the ruins of a settlement established there by Norsemen from Iceland before A.D. 1000.

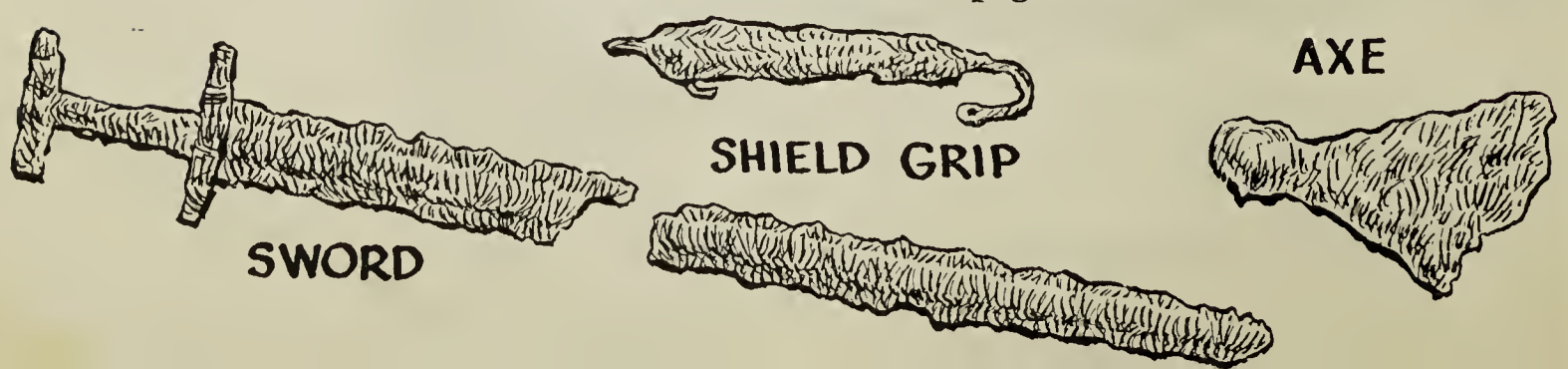
In 1930, a prospector, searching for gold near Lake Nipigon, found some pieces of metal buried over three feet deep. There was a sword, broken in two, and an axe. As soon as scholars heard of this discovery, they were eager to see the weapons. When they examined them, the scholars realized that these must be weapons that had belonged to a Norseman some time around A.D. 1000. How this sword and this axe got into the country near Lake Nipigon we can only guess. We know that it was the custom of the Norsemen to bury their warriors with their weapons by their side. It is probable that some Viking was buried there by his companions.

THE FIRST WHITE MAN TO SEE AMERICA

It was in the year 985—so far as we know—that the first white man saw the shores of Canada. The name of this early discoverer was Bjarni Herjulfson.

In those days very few people ever travelled farther than a few miles from their own homes. They were kept busy making a living, securing enough food for themselves, building their own houses, making their own clothing,

Remains of Norse weapons almost a thousand years old discovered in 1930 near Lake Nipigon



making the tools and weapons they needed, and defending themselves against their enemies.

Even the most learned men had no idea how large the continents of Europe and Africa and Asia were. None of them knew that America or Australia existed. And few of them doubted that the world was flat.

THE NORSEMEN WERE NOTED SAILORS

The Norsemen lived in Northern Europe in those parts we now know as Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Iceland. They found it hard to get enough food in their own countries, for there was not enough good land for them all to be able to make a living by farming, or raising sheep and cattle. Those who lived near the sea built boats and went fishing in the waters near their homes. In time they became very skilful sailors.

Sometimes the Norsemen ventured far from shore in their fishing boats. Sometimes they were carried far from home by sudden storms. When on their voyages they saw lands that were more prosperous than their own, they pulled their boats up on the shore and set out to attack and plunder. They seized food, clothing, gold, and silver, and carried their booty away to their own land. Sometimes the Norsemen decided that they would like to settle in these more fertile countries. Since they were strong fighters they were often able to drive away the people who were living there and take the lands for themselves.

The people of England feared these attacks so much that they used to pray in their churches, "From the fury of the Norsemen, good Lord, deliver us."

One group of the Norsemen seized part of France, another group forced the King of England to give them part of his country, and another group settled in Iceland.

The people from Norway who settled in Iceland were contented there, for they were able to make a comfortable living. They tilled the soil and kept sheep and cattle. In the deep sea around the island they found good fishing.

A prosperous farmer in Iceland, called Eric the Red, quarrelled with one of his neighbours. Words led to blows and in the struggle Eric killed his neighbour. We do not know who was to blame, but Eric's punishment was exile from Iceland.

Eric had heard tales about a land far to the west of Iceland. Since he could not live in Iceland any longer Eric decided to seek this country and make his home there. With his family and a few friends he sailed west until he sighted land. On this land he settled and built a stone house. He called his new home Greenland, because of the green grass which grows quickly there in the short summer.

Eric went back to Iceland to tell his friends and neighbours about the land he had found, and to invite them to join him there. He told them about the bears, whales, seals, and walruses which they could kill for meat and oil and clothing. He told them that they would find good pasture for their sheep and cattle.

Twenty-five ships left Iceland to seek this new land. The voyage was so difficult that even the bravest of the adventurers wondered if they would ever reach land. Often there was thick fog and they could not see the sun by day nor the stars by night. The wind howled. Icebergs towered above the little ships. Huge waves threatened to dash them to pieces. Some of the ships were lost in the storm; some turned back to Iceland. Only fourteen of the twenty-five ships reached Greenland.

These Norsemen made new homes in Greenland, but it was not easy. They could not grow grain there. Since there were no trees, they had to build their houses and barns of stone. Lumber for their doors and for their furniture had to be brought by ship from Norway. For the grain, lumber, and other things they needed, they traded whale bone, walrus ivory, bearskins, and sealskins.

BJARNI HERJULFSON SAILS ALONG THE COAST OF AMERICA

Bjarni Herjulfson, the first white man to see the shores of America, was a sailor who had made many voyages from Norway to Iceland. If the truth must be told, he was not far from being a pirate. Like the Norsemen who swept down upon England in the time of Alfred the Great, he roamed the high seas in his own ship, looking for plunder. Yet he was, it appears, a dutiful son. His custom was, every second year, to go back to his home in Iceland to

Bjarni prepares to leave Iceland for Greenland on the fateful journey which brings him to the shores of America



drink the Yuletide ale with his father. One Christmas he found that his father had gone with Eric the Red to Greenland. Bjarni did not even stop to unload his ship. The stormy waters of the Atlantic had no terrors for him. He set sail at once for Greenland.

Bjarni was a good sailor, but he did not know exactly where Greenland was. He had no compass to help him find his direction, for compasses were not invented until two hundred years after Bjarni made his voyage. He had no maps or charts. He knew only that Greenland lay to the west of Iceland.

Soon after he began his voyage, his ship was blown out of its course by a terrible storm. After several days of bad weather, Bjarni and his men came in sight of land. His men hoped to go ashore but when Bjarni saw that the shore was low and that there were trees on it he would not go ashore. He knew this could not be Greenland. He had been told that there were mountains along the shore of Greenland and that no trees grew there.

He turned his ship north. Again the crew sighted land, and again his men wanted to go ashore to get fresh water. They urged Bjarni to stop and take on a cargo of the tall trees they saw growing on the shore, for they knew that they could find a good market for lumber in Greenland. But Bjarni had only one idea. He wanted to get to Greenland to see his father.

Once more the sailors sighted land, this time a bleak and rocky coast. Again Bjarni refused to land.

A few days later, Bjarni and his crew reached Greenland. When the sailors told about the lands and the trees they had seen, the settlers urged them to go back and bring lumber to Greenland. But Bjarni was not interested. He settled down in Greenland with his father.

Although Bjarni was not interested in finding out more about the new lands he had seen, there was another bold sailor who was. Leif the Lucky, a son of Eric the Red, determined to visit the lands Bjarni had described. Leif bought a sturdy wooden ship from Bjarni and gathered a crew of thirty-five men.

In the year 1000, nearly five hundred years before Columbus set sail from Spain for the New World, Leif and his bold crew sailed south-west from Greenland. The first land they sighted was rocky and barren. They called this country Helluland, which means "the country of flat rocks". We think it was the coast of Labrador. They did not stay long in Helluland, for they did not find anything there they could not find in Greenland.

Again they sailed south until they came to a land where large trees grew. They called this country Markland, which means "woodland". We believe, from the description of the country, that Markland was on the coast of the part of Canada now called Nova Scotia. Leif thought that this was a pleasant land, but he decided to look still farther along the coast before he chose a place to settle. If he did not find anything better, he could come back to Markland.

Again the little ship headed south. The Norsemen found a land where grain grew in the open spaces, where they were able to catch fat salmon in the rivers, where purple grapes hung on the vines. The Norsemen wondered what this strange fruit was for they had never seen any before. One of the men, who had travelled in the Mediterranean, was able to tell them that they had found grapes. They called this country Vinland, which means "land of



vines". We do not know exactly where Vinland was. We know only that it was south of Nova Scotia.

Leif and his men liked Vinland so much that they built houses and stayed there all winter. In the spring they loaded their ships with lumber and went back to Greenland. Leif never went back to Vinland. We do not know why.

Other people in Greenland who heard about the new land thought that they would like to go to Vinland to live. They hoped that it would be easier to make a living there than in Greenland. They thought about the tall trees that grew in Vinland—trees that meant strong lumber for houses, barns, and ships. In Greenland, there were no trees. They thought about the grain that sowed itself in the fields. In Greenland they could not grow grain. They thought about the wild grapes hanging on the vines. In Vinland, they said, they would be able to make all the wine they wanted.



THE NORSEMEN FOUND A SETTLEMENT IN VINLAND

Thorfinn Karlsefni, a prosperous merchant sailor, founded a settlement in Vinland, hoping to make money by shipping lumber and fish back to Greenland. He took a hundred and sixty men with him. Some of them took their families and all their possessions with them and planned to spend the rest of their lives in this rich and pleasant land.

These Norsemen stayed only four years in Vinland. At first the Indians were friendly and ready to trade with the newcomers. Since the Norsemen could not speak the language of the Indians and the Indians could not speak the Norse language, they had to carry on their trading by making signs, by nods and smiles or frowns. It is very hard for people to get along together when one group cannot understand what the other group wants to say. Before long the Indians became unfriendly. They attacked the Norsemen and killed several of them.

Thorfinn and his men decided that they would rather live in Greenland, where there were no Indians, even though they would have to do without the lumber, the fine salmon, the grain, and the grapes they had enjoyed in Vinland.

Other Norsemen visited Vinland later, but none of them made a permanent settlement there.

THE NORSEMEN FORGET THE NEW LAND

Many years passed before any other white men came across the Atlantic to America. In Iceland, in Denmark, and in Norway, stories were told about Bjarni, Leif the Lucky, and Thorfinn, and their voyages to the beautiful country of Vinland.

After a while, these stories began to sound like fairy tales. Few people knew whether these voyages had really taken place. The Norsemen became very busy at home, and ships no longer sailed back and forth from Iceland to Greenland. The little colony in Greenland disappeared and was forgotten. Experts who have studied the ruins of those early settlements are convinced that many of the



settlers perished from starvation and disease, and others were killed by unfriendly Eskimos.

News travelled slowly in those days. Few people in Europe ever heard about the voyages of the Norsemen to the western lands, and those who heard the stories did not know whether they were truth or legend. It was many years before other explorers set foot upon the shores of America.

History was repeated when people came from Iceland to settle in Canada. To-day there are settlements of Icelanders in Manitoba, and these people make fine Canadian citizens.

3. An Italian Adventurer

"My purpose holds
To sail beyond the sunset and the baths
Of all the western stars."

ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON: *Ulysses*

JOHN CABOT BELIEVES THE WORLD IS ROUND

Even before Columbus reached the West Indies in 1492, another Italian seaman was trying to reach Asia by sailing west. This was Giovanni Caboto—or John Cabot, as the English called him.

As a young man John Cabot visited the Near East buying silks and spices for a great trading-house in Venice. Spices were in great demand in Europe to preserve food, for there were no refrigerators in those days. Cabot began to wonder where these spices were grown. Caravan drivers told him they had bought them from other caravan drivers, who in turn had bought them from others, and that the spices grew far away to the east.

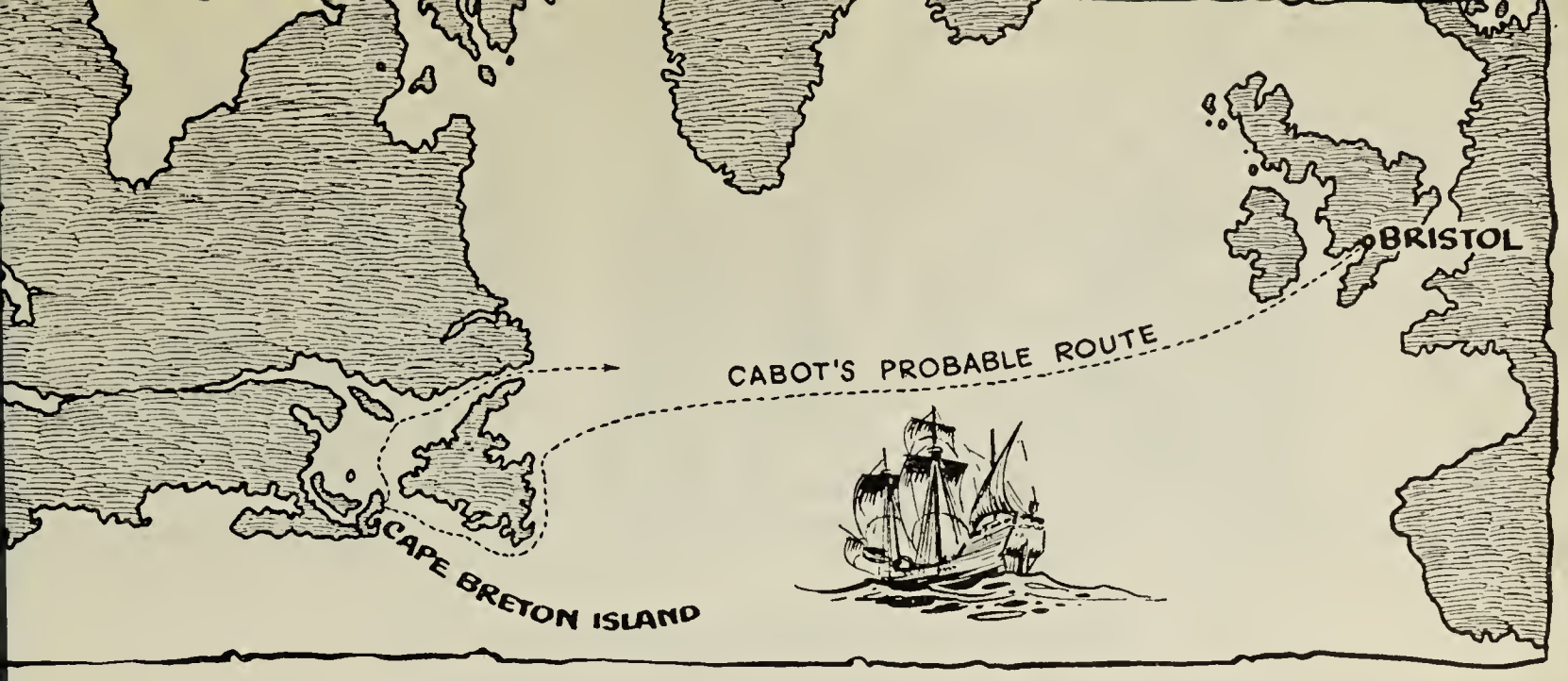
Cabot was certain that the earth was round, and the idea occurred to him that he might be able to reach the country where the spices grew by sailing westward across the Atlantic.

This was the same dream that Columbus had. It is hard for us to realize what a dazzling idea it was at that time. The Far East was said to be a land of fabulous wealth. If only Cabot could find a direct trade route, he would be rich. Neither Cabot nor Columbus, nor any of the people who lived at that time, knew anything about the great continent of America which barred their way to the Far East. They thought the world was much smaller than it is. Cabot believed that Asia was about as far from Europe as America actually is.

HE PERSUADES THE ENGLISH TO BACK HIS VOYAGES

About 1484 John Cabot went to England, which he thought would be the best starting-point for his voyage. There he succeeded in arousing the interest of Henry VII and the merchants of Bristol, the most important seaport on the west coast of the British Isles. "He explained his plan in such a way," wrote an Italian in London, "that I too believe in it, though I have nothing to gain or lose by it."





King Henry and the merchants of Bristol helped to equip Cabot for the voyage, hoping that they would reap great profits from the venture.

From Bristol, Cabot made several voyages of discovery to the westward—just how many we do not know. But alas, each time he returned without having sighted land of any sort. The winds and fogs of the North Atlantic drove him back. However, when the news reached England that Christopher Columbus had succeeded in reaching the Indies farther south, hope rose again and Cabot was able to persuade the King and the merchants of Bristol to outfit him once more.

CABOT DISCOVERS A NEW LAND ACROSS THE ATLANTIC

In the spring of 1497 he set sail in a tiny ship, the *Mathew,* with a crew of eighteen men. This time he succeeded in reaching what he thought were the shores of Asia. Actually, he had reached the shores of Canada. Just what part of Canada he landed upon first is still in dispute. Some historians say it was Newfoundland, while others maintain it was Cape Breton. He landed, unfurled the English flag, and took possession of the country in the name of Henry VII of England.



What signs of habitation did Cabot and his men find in this new country?

Though he did not see any natives, Cabot and his crew knew that the country was inhabited, for they found hunting snares and some notched or "blazed" trees. Since the purpose of this expedition was to discover a new route to Asia, Cabot did not proceed any farther. Confident that he had realized his ambition, he returned to England to tell what he had found.

When the news of Cabot's achievement spread in Bristol, he became a popular hero. Henry VII, though he was a careful man with money, granted Cabot a pension for life and promised to fit him out with a larger expedition the next spring. Cabot began to call himself "the Admiral". "Nor does my lord the Admiral," wrote one of his sarcastic Italian friends in London, "esteem himself anything less than a prince." Cabot began to promise lands and offices to his friends. He even promised an island to his barber, who straightway began to call himself a count.

CABOT'S SECOND VOYAGE TO THE NEW FOUND LAND

In the spring of 1498 Cabot set sail again for the "new found land", this time with two large ships and a company of three hundred men. He crossed the Atlantic and followed the coast of America from Labrador south to somewhere near Chesapeake Bay. He landed and met

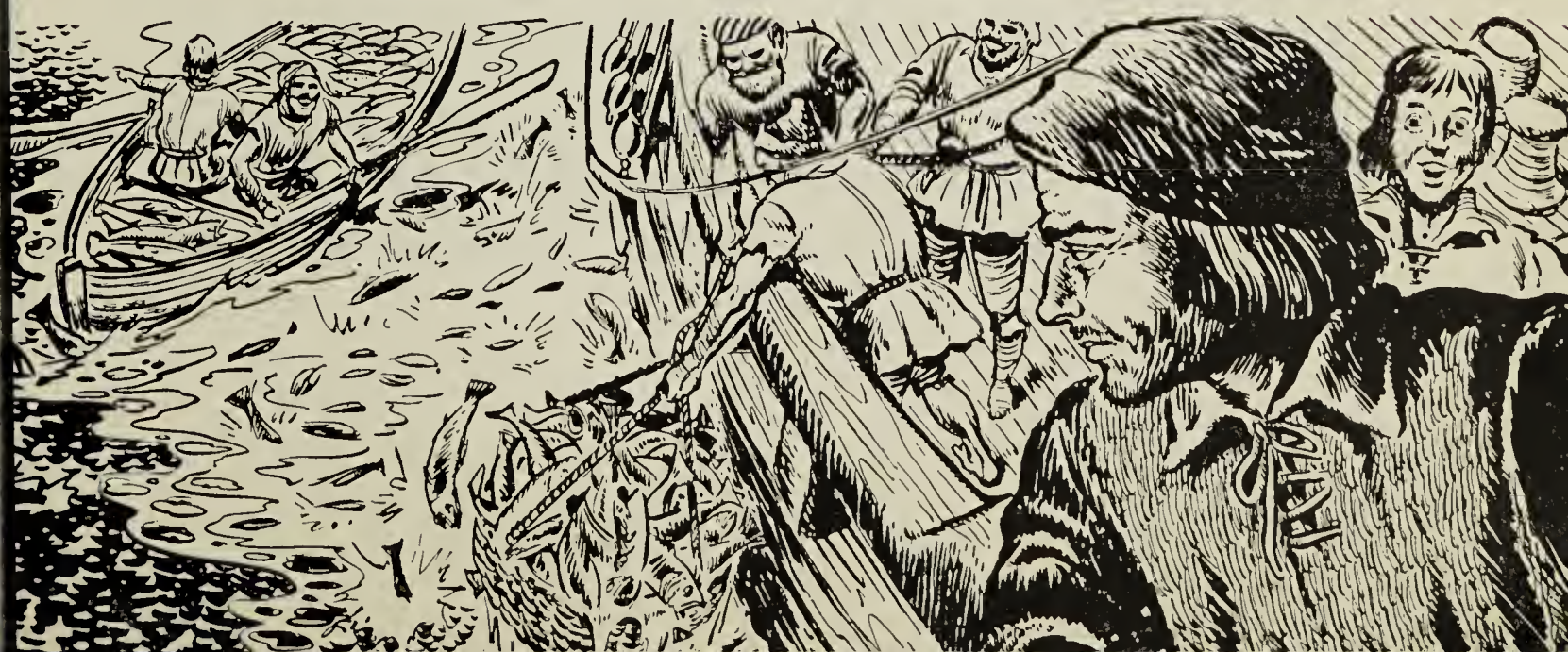
some Indians, and even did a little trading with them. But they had no silks or spices for him, no precious jewels —only a few furs. It may be that he suspected that he had not reached Asia, and wondered whether perhaps he had found another new land. In any case, supplies were running low and the crews were anxious to reach home. The time had come when he must turn back.

DISAPPOINTMENT

Cabot's home-coming in 1498 must have been very different from that of the previous year. He had promised to return with "the wealth of Ormuz and of Ind" but all he brought back was a few furs and some fish.

To the men of his time, Cabot's life seemed, no doubt, a tragic failure. But the verdict of to-day is not always the verdict of to-morrow. Although Cabot did not find the western passage to Asia, he was able to report that a new continent barred the western route to Asia. Although he did not bring back with him the spices and silks he was seeking, he has a place in history as the first European to engage in the fur trade with the American Indians. More important, however, is the fact that he led the way to the fisheries on the Grand Banks of Newfoundland. He told about catching codfish by lowering a basket with a stone in it into the sea. His son, Sebastian, wrote in his diary that the cod were "so numerous that they sometimes

Cabot was the first to discover how plentiful codfish are off the coast of Newfoundland



stopped our ships". After Cabot returned to England with the news that the waters were rich in fish, many fishermen sailed across the Atlantic every spring. Year after year they came, returning in the autumn with shiploads of salted cod.

Others reaped the benefits of Cabot's life's work. He never realized that the fur trade and the fisheries would be a source of wealth as great as the trade in silks and spices could have been.

So far as practical results were concerned, the real discoverer of Canada was not Bjarni Herjulfson, or Leif the Lucky, but the Italian adventurer whose smooth tongue persuaded Henry VII of England and the merchants of Bristol to risk their money in his enterprise.

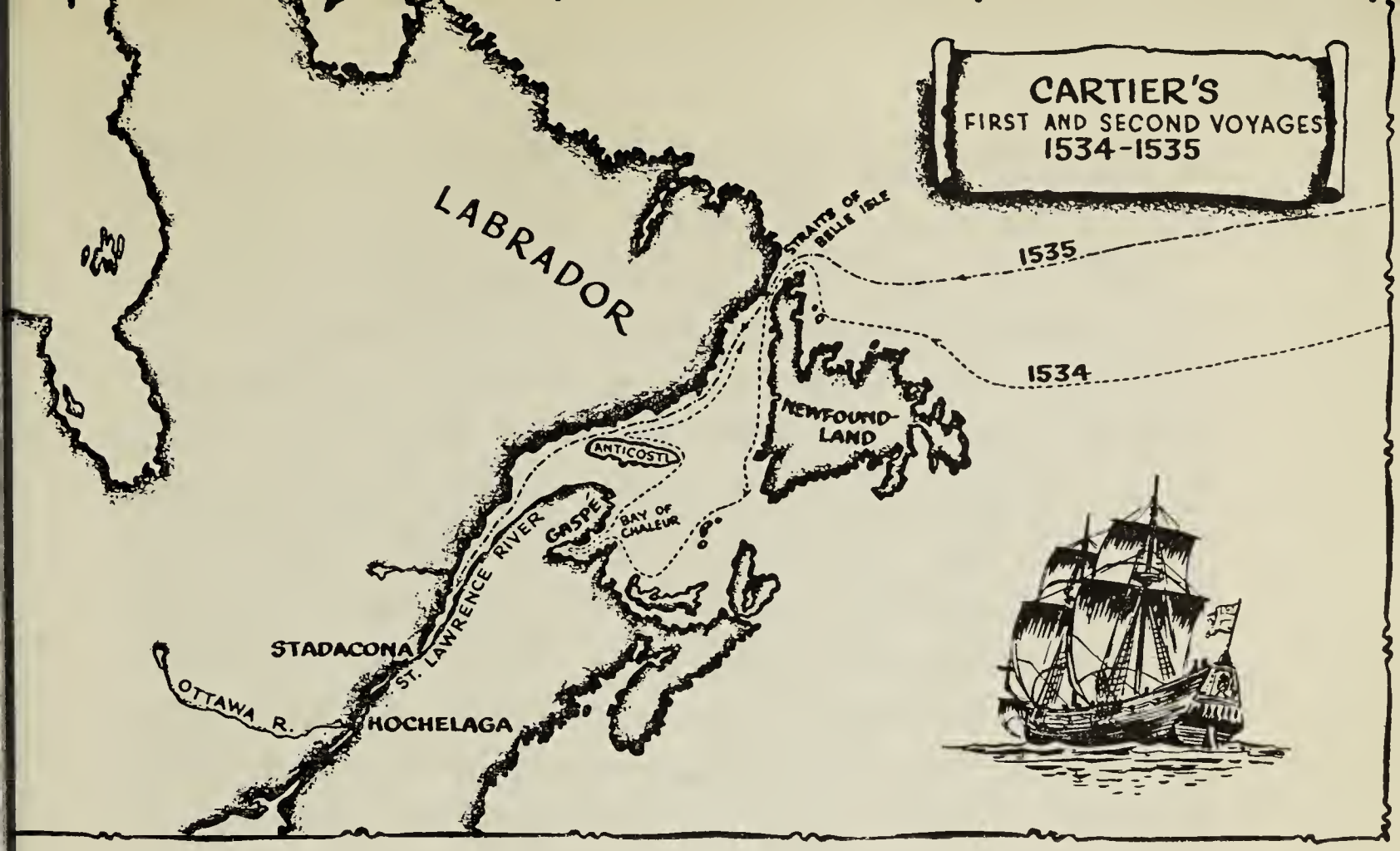
4. The Sea Captain of St. Malo

"In the sea-port of St. Malo, 'twas a smiling morn in May,
When the Commodore Jacques Cartier to the westward sailed away."

THOMAS D'ARCY MCGEE: *Jacques Cartier*

JACQUES CARTIER LANDS AT GASPÉ

In the summer of 1534 a band of Huron Indians had set up their camp near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, on the shores of Gaspé Basin, where they came every summer to fish for mackerel. One day they saw two white-winged ships sail into the Basin to take refuge from the stormy seas outside. The Indians must have had sailing vessels visit them before, for they promptly jumped into their canoes and came out to welcome the strange ships. No doubt the fishermen who came across the Atlantic every year for cod had visited them, and probably the Indians



had traded with the visitors and received presents from them.

The new visitors, however, were not fishermen. These ships were under the command of a French sea captain named Jacques Cartier. He had been sent out by Francis I of France to explore the Atlantic coast of what is now Canada with the object of finding a passage through to the East Indies. By this time it was realized that America was not Asia, but a barrier that lay between Europe and Asia. The greatest ambition of Francis I was that it should be an explorer in his service who should be the first to find a passage through this new continent which barred the way to the riches of Asia. He had already sent out one expedition to explore the coast of America under the command of an Italian sailor named Verrazano. In his explorations, Verrazano had examined carefully the coast-line from Cape Hatteras to Nova Scotia but he had not found the western passage. Still hopeful, the King was

willing to try again. He instructed Jacques Cartier to look for new lands, for gold, and for a water route to Asia.

With two small ships and sixty men Cartier set out. After twenty days the ships anchored off the coast of Newfoundland. They rested there for ten days and then proceeded north towards the Strait of Belle Isle. Their course brought them near a small island so thickly covered with birds that they called it Isle of Birds. There they filled two boat-loads with small fat birds which provided for them six barrels of salted meat. These birds were great auks, birds no longer to be found anywhere. Soon after they left the Isle of Birds they saw a polar bear swimming in the sea. They captured it and found it, according to Cartier, "as good to eat as any heifer of two years".

Through the Strait of Belle Isle, across the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and south as far as Prince Edward Island, the explorers made their way. When they failed to find a passage to the west they turned north again and entered the Bay of Chaleur. Here they hoped they had found what they were seeking but to their great disappointment they soon realized they were in a land-locked bay. Once

Cartier erects a cross bearing the emblem of France to signify he has taken the land in the name of his King



more they sailed north until a storm forced them to take refuge in Gaspé Basin.

At Gaspé Cartier set up a huge wooden cross, thirty feet high, with a shield bearing on it the three lilies which were the emblem of France and the words "Vive le Roi de France". The Indians did not like this. The chief, with his brother and his sons, came out to the ships and protested by signs that the land belonged to them and that they did not want the white man's cross there. Cartier gave them presents and explained that the cross was there to guide other sailors. He decked the chief's sons out in French clothes and gave them each a red cap. So well did he persuade the chief that the French meant the Indians no harm that the chief allowed his two sons to go with Cartier to France in order to learn the French language and customs.

Cartier had found no gold or silver or precious jewels, no silks, no spices. But he had learned that there was a great river flowing from the west and that there were three Indian kingdoms on the banks of that mighty river. The King of France was so pleased with the report Cartier made to him that he commissioned him to return to Canada the next year.

CARTIER'S SECOND VOYAGE

In the spring of 1535 Cartier set out again, this time with three ships, provisions for fifteen months, and a crew of over a hundred men. With him, also, were the two Indian lads who had accompanied him from Gaspé. He sailed through the Gulf of St. Lawrence into the St. Lawrence River—the first white man to enter that great waterway which leads into the heart of Canada. Where the city of Quebec now stands he found the Indian village

of Stadacona. At first the Indians, who had never seen white men or ships with sails before, were afraid and would have run away if the two Indians had not shouted to them in their own language. To Cartier's disappointment, Stadacona was not a rich city. It was a small Indian village, with huts of birch-bark, poor, dirty, and smoky.

Donnaconna, the chief of the tribe of Stadacona, tried to prevent Cartier from going farther up the river. As Cartier hoped the St. Lawrence would lead him to Asia, he ignored Donnaconna's advice. Leaving some of his men in Stadacona, he pushed on up the river. In nine days he came to another Indian village, Hochelaga, situated on the island where now stands Montreal, the largest city of Canada.

Cartier was delighted with the country along the St. Lawrence. It was autumn and the Indians were harvesting their crops of corn, melons, beans, squash, pumpkins, and tobacco. Indian hunters were stalking deer in the forests and catching fish in the river. But Hochelaga, like Stadacona, was a disappointment. Here was no rich Oriental city, only another poor Indian village. The natives, thinking the Frenchmen were gods who had come

Why would Cartier's hopes have risen as he surveyed the country from the top of Mount Royal?



to visit them, brought their sick hoping that the white man's touch had healing power.

Cartier climbed to the top of the mountain which dominates the island of Montreal. From this mountain, to which he gave the name Mount Royal, he looked out over the surrounding country. To the north-west were the waters of the Ottawa River. To the south-west he beheld the upper St. Lawrence. Surely one of these great rivers would lead him to Asia! The Indians, however, told him that both rivers were full of rapids which would smash the white man's boats. It was late in the season and he had been warned about the cold winter. Cartier was a sailor, accustomed to the seas. Unwilling to leave his ships and attempt to navigate the rapids in small boats, he returned to Stadacona.

Cartier's men who had remained at Stadacona had built a fort beside the ships, and there Cartier decided to wait for spring. Little did he or his men know what was in store for them. The winter was terrible beyond anything they had feared. The temperature sank many degrees below zero, and the lack of fresh food brought on an epidemic of disease from which many of the white men died. "Sometimes," wrote Cartier later, "we were constrained to bury some of the dead under the snow, since we were not able to dig graves for them, the ground being frozen so hard, and we so weak." They began to fear that all would perish. Just in time Cartier found an Indian cure for scurvy. By chance he learned that the Indians made medicine from the bark and buds of the spruce trees. He made some of this medicine for his men and made them take it.

When spring came, Cartier set sail for home. With him he took the chief, Donnaconna, and several other Indians.

He wanted them to tell the French king about the riches to be found farther west on the St. Lawrence.

CARTIER'S THIRD VOYAGE

Jacques Cartier came to Canada once more in 1541, this time to found a colony. The King appointed Sieur de Roberval governor of the proposed colony and Cartier his captain general. While Roberval remained in France gathering settlers and supplies, Cartier went ahead to prepare the way.

When Cartier appeared at Stadacona, the Indians rushed out to welcome Donnaconna and the other Indians who had gone to France six years before. Unwilling to admit that they had all died in France, Cartier said that Donnaconna had died and that the others were now great lords in France.

The Frenchmen built a fort and planted a garden. They found stones that they thought might be diamonds and rocks that sparkled like gold. Cartier hoped that he had found in Canada wealth such as the Spaniards had found in the south.

The settlers had a hard winter. The weather was cold; some died of disease; thirty-five were killed by the Indians. As soon as the river was free of ice, they set sail for home.

Cartier supervises the building of the French colony at Stadacona



On their way they met Roberval, who commanded them to turn back. But Cartier and his men had seen enough of Canada. They slipped away at night and sailed home to France.

We know very little about Roberval's stay in Canada. Some of his colonists were adventurous gentlemen from France who were unaccustomed to hard work, others were convicts who had been taken from the prisons to accompany Roberval. We know that it was not long before Roberval, too, sailed back to France.

CARTIER DISCOVERS THE GATEWAY TO NORTH AMERICA

Canada was a disappointment to France. The quartz which Cartier hoped contained diamonds was of no value. The sparkling rocks were not gold but probably iron pyrites—fool's gold it is called, since so many have been deceived by it. We know to-day that there is a great wealth of gold, silver, copper, nickel and other valuable minerals in Canada. But many years passed before anyone found them.

There was a source of great wealth waiting for Europeans in Canada. This wealth was in the fur trade, but it was another sixty years before the French realized how profitable the fur trade could be.

Cartier's voyages, like those of John Cabot, were considered a failure because they did not reach the great cities of the Far East. But he is honoured as the first to plant the French flag on Canadian soil. He was the first to discover the great water-way by which his successors pushed into the heart of the continent. Though more than half a century passed before the French made a permanent settlement in Canada, it was Jacques Cartier who pointed the way for those who later founded New France.

5. The Sea-Dogs of England

"We'll keep the honour of a certain aim
Amid the peril of uncertain ways,
And sail ahead, and leave the rest to God."
H. Van Dyke: *Hudson's Last Voyage*

The explorers of Canada followed two routes. The French entered by the gateway of the St. Lawrence valley. The English, on the other hand, came by Hudson Strait and Hudson Bay.

MARTIN FROBISHER SAILS NORTH-WEST

In 1567 Martin Frobisher set forth from England to find a passage north of the new-found continent, and to look for gold and other precious metals in any countries he visited. He sailed across the Atlantic, past Greenland, and into a broad channel. This channel, he thought, must be the strait that joined the Atlantic to the Pacific. To his great disappointment it was not a strait, but a bay, now known as Frobisher Bay, in Baffin Island. He traded with the Eskimos there for sealskins and collected souvenirs to take home. A walrus tusk, supposed at that time to be a cure for disease, he took back as a gift for Queen Elizabeth. He took, too, some black stones with glistening specks in them, which he hoped contained gold.

Though these stones, like the ones Cartier had taken back to France, contained no gold, but only iron pyrites—fool's gold—the rumour spread that Frobisher had discovered gold deposits of fabulous richness. One person declared that Frobisher had found King Solomon's mines. People rushed to invest their money in an expedition to bring back the gold. The Queen put up a thousand pounds. Frobisher sailed again in 1577. His interest was



Frobisher presents to Queen Elizabeth "gold" from Baffin Island

in exploration but the Queen had instructed him to bring back gold. With great difficulty his men dug up several tons of black rock and loaded it into their ships. Since it was already late in the season, Frobisher reluctantly gave orders to sail for home. When the expedition reached England, it was welcomed with great rejoicing, and the cargo of rock was stored carefully under lock and key in the Queen's castles. It was not long, however, before it was realized that the treasure was only fool's gold.

Even though this cargo was worthless, people would not give up the belief that there must be gold in the new land. Were not the Spaniards bringing home great cargoes of gold? We know that Canada is one of the great gold-producing countries of the world, but the early explorers did not find gold, and, as far as we know, none has been discovered around Frobisher Bay. Nevertheless a third and larger expedition was outfitted in 1578.

This time Frobisher had fifteen ships. Near Frobisher Bay the ships ran into heavy drifting ice and were carried west into Hudson Strait. Frobisher hoped that here, at last, he had found the sought-for North-West Passage. But time had to be spent seeking for the ships which had gone astray in the ice floe, repairing those which had been badly damaged by the ice, and getting a cargo of the worthless rock. The season was late, supplies were low. Frobisher called his captains together and told them that if they agreed he would sail on. But they had had more than enough of Arctic storms and ice floes. When they returned to England, they found that people had turned against them. No one was prepared to finance Frobisher in another expedition to find the North-West Passage.

A few years later, John Davis discovered Cumberland Strait and sailed into Davis Strait between Greenland and Baffin Island. But he discovered neither gold nor a passage to Asia.



Newfoundland is famous as Britain's oldest colony. In 1583 Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a brave sailor and one of the truly great men of his time, set out to found a colony in the New Found Land. Queen Elizabeth had granted him a charter "for the inhabiting and planting our people in America".

Sir Humphrey took with him carpenters, masons, men who knew metals and would be able to help in the search for gold and other precious metals, and even some dancers "for the solace of our people and the allurement of the savages". He set out with a fleet of five ships, the *Raleigh*, the *Swallow*, the *Delight*, the *Squirrel*, and the *Golden Hind*.

When he sailed into the harbour where the city of St. John's now stands, he found many French fishing vessels there. He hastened to claim the island for Britain and made his plans to build a settlement. The French, who were interested only in their cargoes of fish, did not dispute his claim. They could not imagine anyone wanting to live in so desolate a land.

Sir Humphrey believed that there must be a north-west passage to Asia, and naturally, since he was a patriotic Englishman, he wanted to see England in control of the route. He wrote a book in which he tried to prove that there must be a passage through the new-found continent. He urged that Englishmen should take control of it, just as the Spaniards had established control over the southern seas.

"It is the only way," he wrote, "for our princes to possess themselves of the wealth of all the east parts of the world . . . Through the shortness of the voyage we should be able to sell all manner of merchandise brought from thence

far better cheap than either the Portugal or the Spaniard doth or may do. Also we might sail to divers very rich countries where there is to be found great abundance of gold, silver, precious stones, cloth of gold, silks, all manner of spices, grocery wares, and other kinds of merchandise of an inestimable price."

Sir Humphrey thought that a colony might solve some of England's problems. "We might inhabit some part of these countries," he wrote, "and settle there such needy people of our country as now trouble the commonwealth."

He had plans, too, about providing employment. "We shall also set poor men's children to learn handicrafts and thereby to make trifles and such like which the Indians and those people do much esteem."

One ship, the *Raleigh*, had deserted the party when only two days out from England. The *Swallow* was sent home with the men who had taken sick. The *Delight* was lost on a sand-bar. After such bad fortune, when supplies were running low, with winter near at hand, Sir Humphrey's men urged him to postpone building the town he had planned and to return to England. He sailed in the smaller ship, the *Squirrel*. A great storm arose. The men on the *Golden Hind* saw Sir Humphrey seated in the stern of the little ship, his Bible on his knee. They heard him call "Do not fear. We are as near to heaven by sea as by land." A few minutes later the *Squirrel* went down with all on board.

If any of Gilbert's men remained at St. John's, they probably joined the fishermen and returned to their homes when the fishing fleet went back to England. It was not until 1610 that settlers wintered in Newfoundland and a permanent settlement was begun in "Britain's oldest colony".



Beam-on to the enormous, breaking seas of an Atlantic storm, the *Squirrel* has not a chance of surviving

HENRY HUDSON SEARCHES FOR THE NORTH-WEST PASSAGE

Henry Hudson was an experienced sailor who had twice tried to discover a passage to China by travelling north toward Spitzbergen. There is reason to believe that he actually planned to sail across the North Pole, but he was turned back by ice long before he reached that point. In 1609 he set out to find a passage through the continent of America. He entered what is now the harbour of New York and sailed up the mighty river, the Hudson, named for him. When he became convinced that he could not find a passage *through* the new continent, he decided in 1610 to find out whether a passage to China could not be found *round* the continent to the north. The idea of the North-West Passage—the idea which has since lured so many other brave sailors to their fate—had captured his imagination.

In April, 1610, Henry Hudson set sail in the *Discovery*, with a crew of over twenty men. He sailed first to Iceland, and then made his way past the jutting headlands of Greenland to the entrance of Hudson Strait. By constant use of grappling irons, he made his way through the ice-floes as far as Ungava Bay. Here the *Discovery* had a narrow escape. A great iceberg nearly turned over, and there was an avalanche of falling seas. Hudson's men were sick with fear, and begged him to turn back. Just at that moment a rift appeared in the ice. The rift widened to a channel. There came a gust of wind and the *Discovery* sailed into open water. Beyond this open water there appeared in due course a vast sea—Hudson Bay.

When Henry Hudson sailed into Hudson Bay, he thought that he had reached the Western Sea, and that he had only to sail west until he came to China. As he sailed west and then south, he soon realized that he was in a great land-locked bay. When he reached James Bay, at the southern end of Hudson Bay, the terrible northern winter closed down on him, and he had to set up winter quarters on the bleak and barren shore.

Many of Hudson's crew were the riff-raff of the port of London. When spring came and the *Discovery* headed north, Hudson found he had a mutiny on his hands. Supplies were running low and several of the men were sick. The crew wanted to go home to England, and they feared that Hudson would not give up his plans for further exploration. One morning, as Hudson came out of his



cabin, he was set upon by three of his crew, and his arms were bound. Then he and his young son, along with the sick men and the ship's carpenter, who refused to turn against his captain, were thrown into a small boat and set adrift in those cruel Arctic waters. When last seen they were following hard after the *Discovery*. Hudson stood in the stern of the boat, shaking his fist at the mutineers. What happened to Hudson and his companions we do not know. "Of all the dark mysteries of the merciless ocean," says Sir W. F. Butler, "no mystery lies wrapt in deeper shadow than that which hangs over the fate of Henry Hudson."

The mutineers reached Hudson Strait, and there most of them were massacred by the Eskimos. The rest succeeded in reaching the Atlantic. When the *Discovery* came at last in sight of Ireland, only three of her crew remained alive to take back to the world the story of Henry Hudson's last and greatest exploit—the discovery of the great inland sea which bears his name.

STILL NO NORTH-WEST PASSAGE

Many more ships and many brave sailors set out from England to seek a north-west passage. So certain were the English that such a route existed that King James gave one of them, Sir Thomas Button, a letter to deliver to whatever prince he might meet. Button spent a winter at the mouth of the Nelson River. He saw Eskimos and Indians but no princes of China or India.

Others sailed from English harbours to Hudson Bay: William Baffin, Robert Bylot, Luke Fox, Thomas James. They gave names to straits, islands, capes, and bays. Each made his contribution to the growing body of knowledge about this harsh Arctic area, but none found a passage to India.

For Further Study

1. Prepare a class discussion on how the Indians and the Eskimos by ingenuity and effort succeeded in providing for themselves food, clothing, shelter, weapons, and protection from their enemies. One group might report on the Indians of the eastern forest region—the Hurons, Algonquins, and Iroquois; another group on the tribes of the plains—the Crees, Blackfoot, and Athapascan tribes; another on the tribes of the West Coast; another on the Eskimos.

2. What Indian Reserves are there in your province? Where are they located? How many people live there? What provision is made for health and education on the Reserves?

3. List ten Indian place names, other than those mentioned in the text, one from each province, and find out what each means.

4. Here are some words and phrases that the Indians have contributed to our language: moccasin, mackinaw, Indian file, Indian giver, bury the hatchet. How many can you add to the list?

5. Is there a museum in your town? If there is, visit it and look at the Indian weapons, the Indian costumes, the Eskimo carvings. When you go to the towns or cities which have museums, plan to spend some time there looking at the exhibits.

6. The voyages from Iceland to Greenland and to Markland and Vinland were forgotten for many years. Now Greenland and Iceland have become very important to North America. Why?

7. Dramatize the story of John Cabot in three scenes: Scene I—departure from Bristol; Scene II—Cabot honoured by the King on his return; Scene III—the return from the less successful second voyage.

8. Make a mural depicting scenes from Cartier's adventures: the departure from St. Malo; landing at Gaspé; setting up the cross at Gaspé; Indians in Paris; Cartier arriving in Stadacona; Cartier looking out from Mount Royal; the French building a fort; the winter in the fort; Cartier's ships setting out for home.

9. Scurvy is a disease which results from lack of Vitamin C. Make a list of the foods which modern explorers take with them in order that they will not suffer from scurvy.

10. There were many other brave explorers who ventured across the Atlantic to the new land. Find out more about some of them and prepare reports to the class. Here are suggestions for some adventure stories:

The man who was helped by a furious gale; he rounded the Cape of Good Hope without seeing it—Bartholomew Dias;

The man who wrote an account of his travels and had two continents named after him—Amerigo Vespucci;

The man who sailed too far to the west and discovered Brazil—Pedro Cabral.

11. If you are interested in the exploration of the Arctic, look for accounts of the voyages of Weymouth, Button, Baffin.

12. The members of the class who are stamp collectors will already have a number of stamps commemorating events in our history. A committee might undertake to make a collection for the class. Two very useful books about stamps are: *A Hundred Years of Canadian Stamps* by Ralph S. Mason (Ryerson Press), and *Discovering Newfoundland Through Stamps* by Ruth Anderson (School Aids and Textbook Publishing Company). There are many stamps commemorating the voyages of Cabot and Cartier. Look for the Newfoundland 1897 series, and the Canadian Quebec tercentenary series of 1908. The Newfoundland series of 1933 pays tribute to Sir Humphrey Gilbert.

13. One group in the class might undertake to make a *Book of Ships,* drawing pictures or pasting pictures cut out from magazines of ships such as were used by the people who came to America. Start with an Indian canoe and an Eskimo kayak. Then add a Viking ship, Columbus' *Santa Maria,* Cabot's the *Mathew,* Cartier's the *Grande Hermine,* Frobisher's the *Gabriel,* Gilbert's the *Squirrel,* and Hudson's the *Discovery.* Later you can add other ships.



II. *The French in Canada*

6. The First Footholds

"Who is the voyager on these coasts?
Who is the traveller in these waters?"
ARCHIBALD MCLEISH: *America Was Promises*

Many years passed after Roberval's ill-fated attempt to found a settlement on the St. Lawrence before further ventures were made to bring out colonists. But during those years the new land was not forgotten. Every year fishermen crossed the Atlantic to bring home boatloads of cod. When the fishermen encountered Indians, they often traded knives or axes or cloth for fur which they then took back to France where they could sell it for a good price. Meanwhile the British had been sending expeditions to find a passage to Asia north of America. The French thought of a better plan. "We French," wrote Champlain, "mean to build a settlement in New France to make exploration easier by beginning our voyages on that side of the ocean."

In order to finance these explorations, the King of France granted complete control of the fur trade first to one man and then to another. This meant that the fishermen would no longer be allowed to trade in furs. They did not like this but there was not much they could do about it.

SABLE ISLAND

In 1598 the Marquis de la Roche, to whom the King had given control of the fur trade in America, undertook to establish a settlement. He landed a group, mostly convicts, on the barren shores of Sable Island. A storm kept him from coming back to look after his colony and it was not until five years later that a ship from France made its way across the Atlantic to the unhappy men marooned on the desolate island. Eleven who had survived the hardships of the ill-fated adventure were taken back to France.

To-day no one lives on Sable Island except the men who look after the lighthouses and the lifeboats which are kept there for the rescue of shipwrecked sailors. Sable Island has been called "the graveyard of the Atlantic" because so many ships have been wrecked near its shores.

TADOUSSAC

In 1599 two merchants, Pontgravé and Chauvin, were given a monopoly of the fur trade on the St. Lawrence on condition that they bring out fifty colonists a year. They established a post at Tadoussac, at the mouth of the Saguenay River. Sixteen men were left there in the autumn of 1600 to trade for furs with the Indians. When Chauvin came back the next spring, the post was deserted. No one knows what happened to the men.

CHAMPLAIN'S FIRST VISIT TO THE ST. LAWRENCE

On his next trip Pontgravé was accompanied by Samuel de Champlain, who was an explorer and geographer. Pontgravé undertook to look after the fur trade. When Champlain made his way up the St. Lawrence as far as the Lachine Rapids, he developed a burning ambition to explore farther and to establish a settlement in this new land.



Early settlements in Canada were in the Maritimes

DE MONTS IN ACADIA

In 1604 Sieur de Monts was given a monopoly of the fur trade along the Atlantic Coast. With de Monts came Champlain. They chose the island of St. Croix, where the St. Croix River enters the Bay of Fundy, for their first settlement. Since both men had been soldiers it was natural for them to choose a site which could be defended against attack. Buildings were constructed, gardens prepared, and seeds planted. But St. Croix proved a poor choice. The soil was not good, and as there was little rain that summer, the gardens were not a success. Since there was no fresh water on the island, the unfortunate settlers had to row over to the mainland for fresh water. Champlain and de Monts had no idea how cold the winters were in this country, and they found there was not enough wood for fuel on the island. As the gardens had not provided a supply of fresh vegetables, the colonists had little food but salt meat. Scurvy broke out. Champlain and de Monts did not know about the Indian remedy for scurvy made from the bark and buds of the spruce about which Cartier had learned. By spring nearly half of the colonists had died and the rest were so weak they were scarcely able to walk.

Next summer they moved the little colony, buildings and all, across the Bay of Fundy to Port Royal, now known as Annapolis. Though the adventurers did not suffer as much as they had the previous winter, they were almost ready to give up the venture when supply ships arrived from France the next spring. The newcomers urged them to try again. In the fertile soil of the Annapolis Valley, now famed for its apple orchards, their gardens were more successful than they had been at St. Croix. During the winter, Champlain, hoping to ward off scurvy by exercise and good food, organized the Order of Good Cheer. Each man in turn was chief steward, responsible for the meals for that day. There was keen rivalry to determine who would provide the best food. When his turn came, each man hunted and fished diligently and sought new delicacies and new ways of preparing them. This combination of good food, exercise, and merriment was the best possible defence against scurvy.

Champlain made several expeditions along the coast, going as far south as Cape Cod. He made such careful maps that his exact course may be followed to-day without any difficulty.

Unfortunately, the next summer de Monts lost his monopoly of the fur trade and the colony was abandoned. Recently the fort at Port Royal has been rebuilt and every year thousands of tourists visit it.

The Order of Good Cheer is designed to keep the men at St. Croix in good spirits and health



7. The Founder of New France

"The great discoverer came,
Finding another Indies than he guessed
To reward his daring quest,
And fill the wonder-volume of Romance—
The sailor of little Brouage, the founder of New France,
Sturdy, sagacious, plain,
Samuel de Champlain."

BLISS CARMAN: *Champlain*

On April 14, 1608, the crew of the sailing vessel, *Don de Dieu,* weighed anchor and set sail from the harbour of Honfleur, on the west coast of France, bound for "the great river of Canada". On board was Samuel de Champlain, returning to the new land, resolved to establish a trading-post on the banks of the St. Lawrence. This trading-post was destined to become the first permanent settlement on Canadian soil.

At this time Champlain was about forty years of age. He had led a most daring and adventurous life. First he served as a soldier. When the wars were over, he had gone to sea, making several voyages to the New World. He visited the West Indies and Mexico, and he suggested —three centuries before it came to pass—the building of the Panama Canal. He had been with Pontgravé on the St. Lawrence and there he had viewed the land which was to be the scene of his life work. He had been with de Monts in Acadia. In France he had won renown for the careful maps he had made of the countries he had visited and for the interesting books he had written about his travels.

The *Don de Dieu* made an uneventful voyage. Early in June it rounded the Point of All Devils which guards the entrance to the harbour of Tadoussac. Here Champlain

LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

met his friend and associate, Pontgravé. They decided to establish their trading-post farther up the river. After building a small ship suitable for river travel, Champlain set off upstream. Three days later he reached the narrows at Quebec.

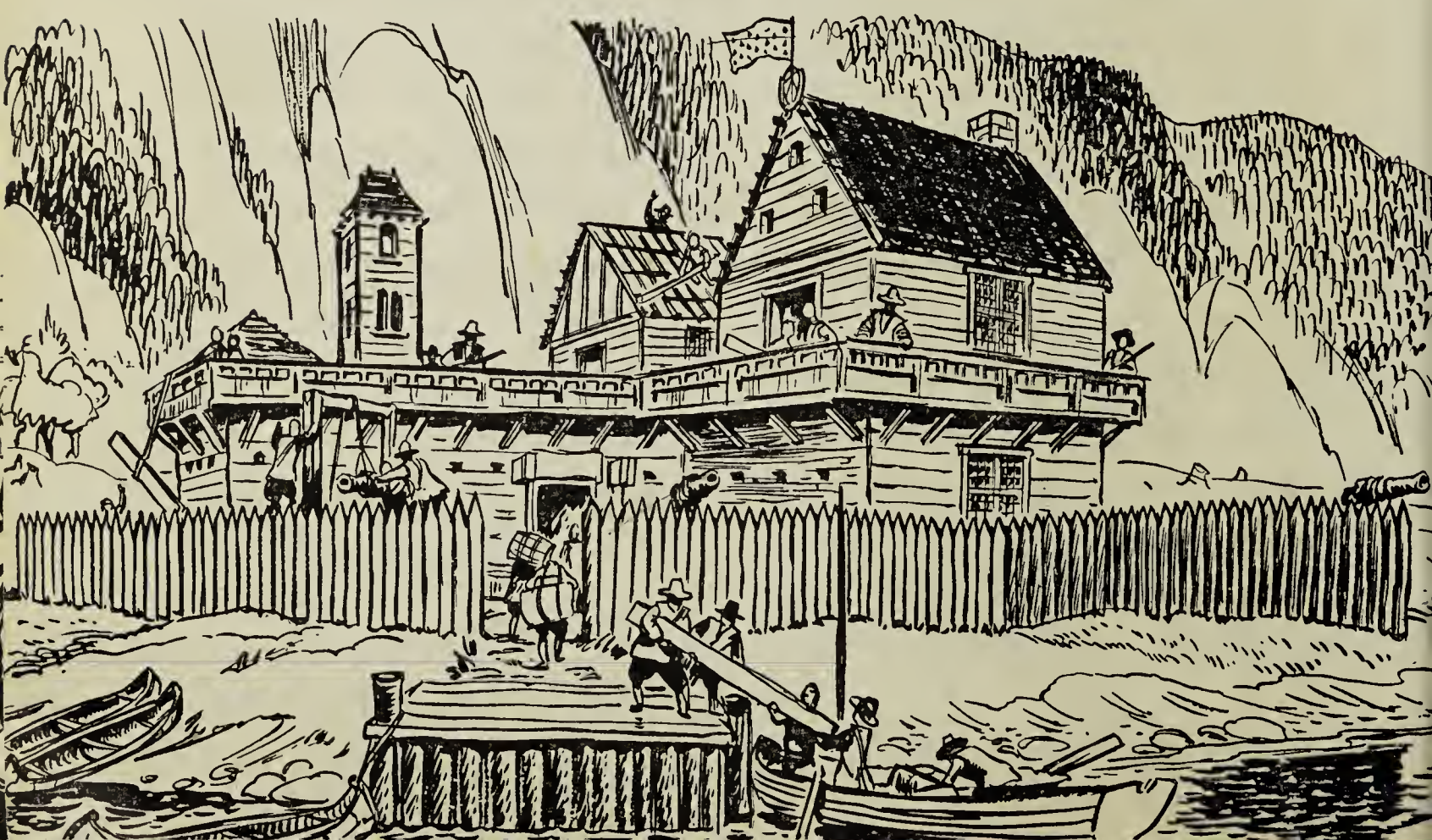
THE FOUNDING OF QUEBEC

"Here," wrote Champlain in his narrative, "I searched for a place suitable for a settlement; but I could find none more convenient or better situated than the point of Quebec, so called by the savages."

Champlain chose wisely. Quebec is one of the world's great natural fortresses.

On the site of what is to-day the market place of the Lower Town of Quebec, Champlain's men cut a clearing. There they built his trading-post. Champlain drew a sketch of his *Habitation*, as he called it, showing three log buildings surrounded by a strong wooden wall, round which ran a moat or a trench. Round the building at second-storey level was a gallery with a wall with loop-holes through which the defenders could fire at any enemy who might appear. A plot nearby was laid out as a garden.

Quebec, one of our great cities, is founded by Champlain



Many were the trials that attended the founding of the infant colony. Even while the *Habitation* was being built, there was a conspiracy against Champlain. Only his coolness and resourcefulness prevented mutiny. The leader of the conspiracy was beheaded and his head displayed on a spike from the highest roof, as a warning to anyone who might be inclined to follow his example. Henceforth Champlain had no more trouble with mutineers.

The winter was long and cold, colder even that at St. Croix. When the first ship arrived from France in the spring, only eight of the twenty-eight men who had gone to Quebec were alive. And the eight were very weak and ill.

A man of less dauntless courage than Champlain might have given up. But not Champlain. He made arrangements to bring out more colonists. In the years that followed, he met many discouragements. The French merchants who were backing him did not make any real attempt to provide him with settlers. They were interested in making money from the fur trade, not in establishing settlements in this far-away land. It was not easy to persuade settlers to come to a land where so many died each winter. But Champlain believed in Canada and he would not accept defeat. The few colonists who came to Canada came because he persuaded them to join him in his bold venture.

LOUIS HÉBERT—THE FIRST FARMER IN NEW FRANCE

Louis Hébert, who had been with Champlain at Port Royal, was persuaded to join him in Quebec. In Paris he had been an apothecary—half druggist, half doctor. Apothecaries in those days made their medicines from herbs, and from his work with herbs, Hébert became

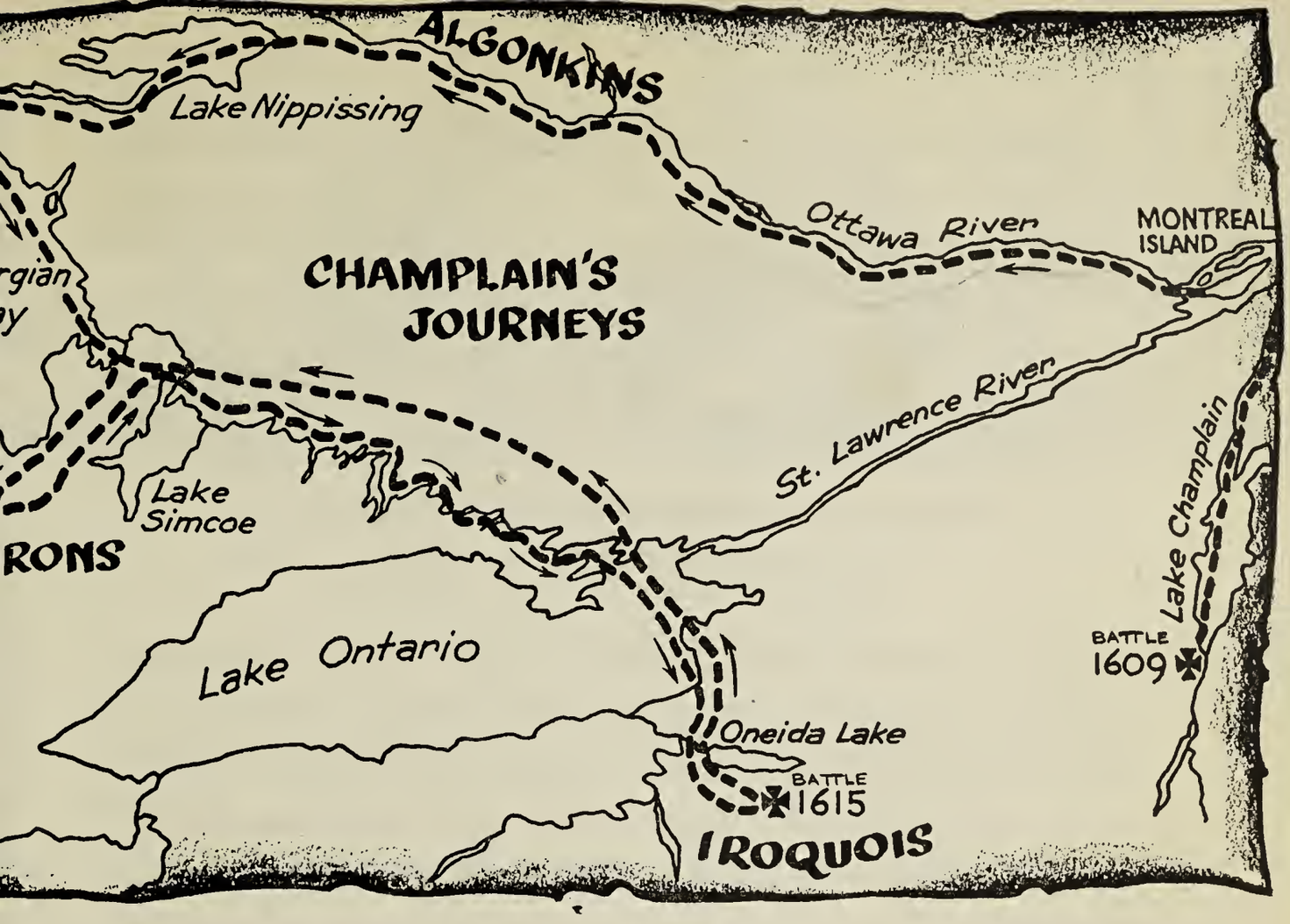
interested in agriculture. When he came with his family to Quebec he cleared a farm on the heights of Cape Diamond and there he settled for the rest of his life. His children married the children of other settlers and to-day many people of the province of Quebec state with pride that they are descendants of Louis Hébert, the first farmer in Canada.

CHAMPLAIN'S EXPLORATIONS

At heart an explorer, and by training a geographer, Champlain was not content merely to found a centre for settlement and trade. The *Habitation* at Quebec was hardly completed when he set out to explore the unknown country to the west. He realized that he must build up a profitable trade in furs to keep the French merchants willing to support his enterprise. Then, too, there was always the hope that he might discover the pathway to the Western Sea which washed the shores of Asia.

He made three notable journeys into the interior. In 1609 he pushed up the valley of the Richelieu River and discovered Lake Champlain. Here he and his Indian allies came into conflict with the Iroquois, the strongest and most warlike of all the Indian tribes. This encounter unfortunately earned for the French the undying hatred of the Iroquois, and for many years their war-parties threatened the little French colony. Champlain, of course, could hardly have foreseen this result, and even if he had, there was no other course he could have taken. The Indians would not have understood a man who did not take sides. He won the support of the Indians who lived near his settlements. It was, however, unfortunate for the French that their Indian allies were not as strong as the Iroquois.

In 1613 Champlain went up the Ottawa River as far as Morrison Island, beyond the present site of the city of



Ottawa. In 1615 he went up the Ottawa again and crossed over to Georgian Bay by way of Lake Nipissing and the French River. He spent the winter on the south shore of the Bay in the villages of the Huron Indians. In the spring he went with a war-party of the Hurons by way of Lake Simcoe and across Lake Ontario into what is now the northern part of New York State. This trip took him right into the Iroquois country and once more he helped his allies, the Hurons, against their deadly enemy, the Iroquois.

Before the Pilgrim Fathers had landed on Plymouth Rock, Champlain had travelled in canoe and on foot thousands of miles through the wilderness of North America. He had seen with his own eyes more of eastern Canada than any but a favoured few see even in these days of railways, steamships, and motor cars.

Champlain's exploring days ended in 1616. By this time he was nearly fifty years old. Doubtless he realized that he was no longer equal to the hardships of exploring and the discomfort of life among the Indians. Henceforth he devoted his energy to building up the colony at Quebec. In this he met with heart-breaking disappointments. The colony grew very slowly. By 1627 the total population, men, women and children, was only sixty-five.

QUEBEC TAKEN BY THE ENGLISH

The severest blow was still to come. There were merchants in London who wanted a chance at the rich fur trade on the St. Lawrence. France and England were at war. This was their opportunity. In the spring of 1628 they sent an expedition under David Kirke to seize Quebec.

About the same time eighteen ships carrying settlers and supplies set out from France for Quebec. They crossed the Atlantic safely and were sailing up the broad stretches of the St. Lawrence when the English attacked them. Only one French ship escaped. All the others were sunk or captured.

When Kirke appeared before Quebec, Champlain refused to surrender. Kirke decided it would be easier to starve the French out than to take Quebec by storm. His men seized the cattle in the fields and destroyed the crops. By July, 1629, the French were so close to starvation that they had to surrender. With a sad heart Champlain saw the cross of St. George replace the lilies of France on the flagpole. The English sent Champlain and his little band of half-starved colonists back to France. Only the Hébert family remained. It must have seemed to Champlain that his life work lay in ruins.



Champlain, great leader of New France, returns to find his settlement destroyed

QUEBEC RESTORED TO FRANCE

The treaty which ended the war gave Canada back to France. In 1633 Champlain sailed once more for Quebec to take possession in the name of the King of France.

As his ship neared Quebec, Champlain looked eagerly to catch the first glimpse of his *Habitation*. He found that the English had burnt it to the ground. "Of that poor settlement," wrote a Jesuit father who came with him, "nothing is now to be seen but the ruins of its bare walls."

Undaunted by this disaster, Champlain set to work to build a new and larger *Habitation* and also a mission house, larger and better than any building that had been built in the first settlement. To commemorate the recovery of Quebec, Champlain built the Church of Our Lady of the Recovery.

During the autumn of 1635 he fell ill, and on Christmas day he passed away. Settlers and Indians mourned together the loss of their great leader. He was buried with all the respect and ceremony the colony could command in the little church he had built. A few years later the church was destroyed by fire and to-day no one knows for certain just what spot in the city of Quebec covers the body of the heroic founder of New France.

8. The Watch-Dog of Ville-Marie

> "A good dog is so much a nobler beast than an indifferent man that one sometimes gladly exchanges the society of one for that of the other."
>
> Sir William Butler: *The Wild North Land*

THE FOUNDING OF VILLE-MARIE

In 1642 a second settlement was established, the little fort and mission station of Ville-Marie, on the site of the present city of Montreal. A group of enthusiastic priests, nuns, and laymen in France had formed a foreign missionary society, known as the "Association for the Conversion of the Savages at Montreal", and they had collected a large sum of money to found a mission and hospital on the island of Montreal. A brave and chivalrous soldier, the Sieur de Maisonneuve, was chosen as leader of this bold enterprise.

In the summer of 1641 Maisonneuve arrived in Quebec with fifty men and four women, prepared to proceed with this missionary venture. At Quebec he met with some discouragement. The governor of Quebec tried to persuade him to abandon his project. There were, he said, no Indians on the island of Montreal, and the island was in a most exposed position, directly in the path of the Iroquois raiders who had already begun to threaten the life of New France. But Maisonneuve could not be turned aside. He said that he would go to Montreal even "if every tree on that island were changed to an Iroquois".

The first thing Maisonneuve and his companions did when they reached their goal on May 18th, 1642, was to set up an altar. One of the priests preached a sermon, in which he said,

"You are a grain of mustard seed that shall rise and grow till its branches overshadow the earth. You are few, but your work is the work of God. His smile is upon you, and your children shall fill the land."

After calling for God's blessing on their enterprise, the little band began to build a small fort surrounded by a palisade of pointed stakes.

DANGER THREATENS VILLE-MARIE

For several months the little settlement was undisturbed. The nuns and nursing sisters could stroll through the woods near the fort without fear of attack. The priests and settlers were not afraid to go hunting or fishing. But one day a party of friendly Algonquins, closely pursued by the fierce Iroquois, fled for refuge to the fort. Once the Iroquois learned of its existence, Ville-Marie had no peace. The Iroquois, armed with guns obtained from the Dutch traders on the Hudson River, infested the neighbourhood, and there were no more pleasant strolls in the woods, no more care-free excursions for hunting or fishing. When the defenders of the fort went into the forest, they marched in a body, carrying their guns. Anyone who went outside the palisade alone courted almost certain death. Sometimes a single Iroquois warrior would lie hidden for days, without sleep and almost without food, behind a fallen tree or in a dense thicket, waiting patiently for some rash straggler. Sometimes war-parties of a hundred or more lay in ambush in the forest, and tried to lure the garrison of the fort to their doom. The Iroquois warriors seldom attacked a fortified place, but, short of this, they did all in their power to harass the defenders of the little settlement.

The resourceful Maisonneuve conceived the idea of using watch-dogs to act as scouts and sentinels. He sent to France for some hunting dogs, and in course of time several of these were landed at Ville-Marie. One of these dogs was named Pilotte. Pilotte was the mother of a large and noisy family, and probably more was expected of her puppies, when they should grow up, than was expected of her. But it was not long before she showed a keen appreciation of the situation, and developed a genius for scouting which astonished Maisonneuve and his men. She became, in fact, a mainstay of the defence. Every morning after breakfast she would start out, followed by her brood, and make a circuit of the woods and fields surrounding the fort. If one of her pups lagged behind, she reminded him of what was expected of a good scout by administering a sharp bite on the ear or on the leg, and if one of them skulked and ran home, she punished him in the same manner on her return. Her scent for the enemy

Every morning Pilotte went on a scouting expedition



was unerring. If any of the Iroquois were in the neighbourhood, she never failed to discover their presence. As soon as she scented them she barked furiously, and made at once for the fort, followed by her offspring in full cry. Doubtless many an Iroquois longed to plant an arrow in her hide, but Pilotte was too clever and careful a scout to give anyone a chance to do so.

Pilotte seems, indeed, to have been endowed with almost human intelligence. She must have realized that it was her duty to warn the garrison at Ville-Marie of the presence of the Iroquois, and she performed that duty with a courage and fidelity that entitles her to be regarded as one of the heroines of Canadian history. At the same time, it is clear that she was a dog like other dogs. The Jesuit father who tells us most about her states, with quaint humour, that, while scouting for Iroquois was her duty, "her natural inclination was for hunting squirrels".

Maisonneuve was brave but he was a man who knew how to temper valour with discretion. He knew that his men were not good woodsmen, and that they would almost certainly be worsted in an encounter with the Iroquois in the forest. When Pilotte sounded the alarm, he gathered his men into the fort, and stood on the defensive. After a time this policy began to tell on the nerves of the defenders. When his men began to accuse him of cowardice, Maisonneuve realized that, if he was to keep the confidence of his followers, he must take action. In the spring of 1644, therefore, he decided to sally forth at the first favourable opportunity, and give battle to the Iroquois in the forest.

He did not have long to wait. One March morning, Pilotte was heard barking in the woods east of the fort. In a few moments she and her puppies broke into view,



Maisonneuve shoots

running at full speed over the clearing, which was still covered with deep snow. Maisonneuve immediately gave the order to prepare for a sally.

The French had snowshoes enough for thirty, so, leaving the others to defend the fort, Maisonneuve led his thirty best fighters across the clearing and into the forest. Here all was as silent as the grave. Suddenly, however, the Iroquois war-cry rose on the air, and the thirty Frenchmen were set upon by three times their number. The situation was critical. Maisonneuve ordered his men to take shelter behind trees and stumps, where for a time they were able to hold their ground. Soon numbers began to tell. Three of the Frenchmen were killed; several of them were wounded; and their ammunition began to fail.

Maisonneuve ordered a retreat, and while his men retired he covered their withdrawal. Alone, a pistol in each hand, he faced a hundred blood-thirsty Iroquois. He might easily have been shot down, but the Iroquois chief, recognizing him as the commander of the French, was determined to take him alive. His followers held back to give him his opportunity. As the chief sprang forward, Maisonneuve snapped his pistol at him. It missed fire. He pulled the trigger of the other pistol, and the Iroquois chief fell dead in his tracks.



the Indian chief

Then happened a curious thing, not uncommon in Indian warfare. The Iroquois, in their desire to rescue the body of their chief, seemed to ignore the dauntless Frenchman who faced them. Maisonneuve was able to regain the fort in safety. As he entered the gates, it is possible (though this is purely imagination) that he was greeted by Pilotte, wagging her tail, as if to say, "I am glad you are back safely, but now perhaps you will realize what it means to go scouting after the Iroquois in the forest." However this may be, after this Pilotte disappears from view. There is evidence that in the Indian troubles of three years later she was no longer scouring the woods about Ville-Marie. She may have died a natural death at the fort, for dogs do not live long, or she may have perished in the forest, transfixed by an Iroquois arrow. We do not know how she came to her end, for history seldom records the fate of man's four-footed friends. But nothing can rob her of the proud title of the Watch-dog of Ville-Marie.

The little mission station survived the attacks of the Iroquois, and to-day the proud and prosperous city of Montreal stands where once stood Ville-Marie. Maisonneuve had chosen a good site, in the heart of the fertile St. Lawrence plain, near where the Ottawa and the Richelieu Rivers flow into the St. Lawrence.

9. For God and Church

"Where was the source
Of his strength, the home of his courage that topped the best
Of their braves and even out-fabled the lore of their legends?"
EDWIN J. PRATT: *Brébeuf and his Brethren*

Champlain had not been long in Quebec before he had missionaries brought out, for one of his fondest dreams was that the Indians might be converted to Christianity. The task of carrying the gospel into the Huron country was entrusted to the Jesuits, a strong and powerful order of monks. The story of their missions is a proud and glorious page in the history of Canada. They endured incredible hardships and many of them sacrificed their lives in their heroic attempt to save the souls of the Indians.

None of the missions the Jesuits established in the Huron villages south of Georgian Bay became permanent settlements like Montreal. The missionaries had only a few years to work before the Huron villages were wiped out by the fierce and savage Iroquois.

THE FIRST MISSION ESTABLISHED AT STE. MARIE

For their first mission, the Jesuits chose a spot at the mouth of the river Wye, about a mile away from the site of the present town of Midland. There in 1639 they built a fortified residence which they called Ste. Marie. It was to be the headquarters of the mission stations which they planned to establish throughout the Huron country. Here lived the superior of the mission, Father Jérome Lalemant, and here all the members of the mission must have stayed at some time—Father Brébeuf, Father Daniel, Father Gabriel Lalemant, and the others of that brave company.

THE IROQUOIS ATTACK

One morning in March, 1649, the workers at Ste. Marie saw smoke and flame rising from the little village of St. Louis, a mile away. They knew what this fire meant. For many months Iroquois war-parties had been lurking in the neighbourhood. The summer before, one of these Iroquois parties had raided St. Joseph, the southernmost of the Huron villages, where Father Daniel had been stationed. Alone he had waited at the foot of the altar of the little church he had built. The savage Iroquois had murdered the gentle priest and burned the church.

BRÉBEUF AND LALEMANT MARTYRS TO THEIR FAITH

When the Iroquois attacked St. Louis, they took Father Brébeuf and Father Lalemant captive. For four hours they tortured Brébeuf, pouring boiling water over his head, and throwing a necklace of red-hot tomahawks about his neck. But no cry of pain came from the stalwart priest. No Indian brave ever met the tortures of the enemy with more iron courage than he. For fourteen hours they tortured the gentle Father Lalemant, until death released him from his agony.

Brébeuf and Lalemant suffer like martyrs the tortures of the Iroquois



One by one the Huron villages were wiped out. By the summer of 1649 the Jesuit fathers decided it would be wise to abandon Ste. Marie and take refuge with the remnant of their flock on Charity Island in Georgian Bay. They set fire to the residence at Ste. Marie before they left. There at the mouth of the little river Wye, visitors may still find the foundations of the building. It is perhaps the oldest stone ruin on the continent of North America.

On Charity Island they built a stone shelter, the remains of which may still be seen. After a winter there, the missionaries realized that the island could not provide food for so many people. Many of the Hurons returned to the mainland, where they were massacred by the ruthless Iroquois. "My pen," wrote the Father Superior of the mission, "has no ink black enough to describe the fury of the Iroquois."

In the summer of 1650 the Jesuits had no choice but to abandon the missions. They returned to Quebec. Several hundred of the Hurons went with the missionaries and found new homes first on the Island of Orleans and later at Lorette. Others escaped the Iroquois and went to the area near Detroit, where they came to be known as the Wyandots. Of the powerful Huron Nation, which in 1639 had numbered 20,000 souls, no other trace remained. Of

This shrine is visited yearly by thousands of people from every part of the world



the Huron missions only a few ruins, a few stones and metal relics, and the memory of a noble and heroic missionary venture have survived.

A church and a martyrs' shrine have been built on the site of Ste. Marie, on the river Wye, near the town of Midland. There in 1949 and 1950 historical pageants depicted the work of the missionaries and religious services commemorated the three-hundredth anniversary of the destruction of the missions and the martyrdom of the heroic priests.

10. The Heroes of the Long Sault

> "Beside the dark Utawa's stream, two hundred years ago,
> A wondrous feat of arms was wrought, which all the world should know."
>
> GEORGE MURRAY: *How Canada was Saved*

In the spring of the year 1660, a famous fur-trader, named Pierre Radisson, was coming down the Ottawa River toward Montreal with his winter's cargo of furs. As he neared the head of the long rapids some fifty miles north-west of the island of Montreal, his scouts brought word that there was an Iroquois camp at the foot of the rapids. Leaving half his men to guard his canoes, Radisson led the rest overland to surprise their enemies. They found a palisade defended by a few Iroquois. As the war-whoop of Radisson's Indians rose in the air, the defenders of the fort fled in panic, and most of them escaped.

When Radisson and his Indian allies swarmed into the enclosure, their eyes met a sight which must have harrowed their souls. From the pickets of the palisade there dangled the bleeding scalps of both Indians and white men. Here and there in the palisade were gaping holes.

Every tree in sight was spattered with bullet holes. By the river were the charred bones of prisoners who had been burnt at the stake. In the middle of the fort was a hole in the ground from which its hard-pressed defenders must have scooped up the muddy water to quench the raging thirst that parched their mouths.

Radisson had stumbled on the scene of one of the most heroic exploits in the history of Canada, the glorious stand of the seventeen young "heroes of the Long Sault" who laid down their lives to save New France.

DOLLARD AND HIS COMPANIONS SET FORTH TO HALT THE IROQUOIS

This is their story. In the early spring of 1660 word had reached Montreal that the Iroquois were on the war-path, and that large numbers of them had wintered up the Ottawa not far away. It was certain that Montreal would be the first object of their attack. A number of the young men of Montreal came to the conclusion that the best way of warding off the Iroquois onslaught was to go out to meet it—to carry the war into the enemy's country, and to strike the first blow. The leader of these young men was a youth of gentle birth, named Adam Dollard, who had settled in Montreal only about eighteen months before. He persuaded sixteen other young men, most of them still in their twenties, to volunteer with him, and he obtained the permission of Maisonneuve to lead them on a forlorn hope up the Ottawa.

In a calm and business-like manner the young men made their wills. Together they went to the little chapel of the Hôtel-Dieu to confess their sins and to receive the blessed sacrament. Among those who bade them farewell, there must have been many whose eyes were dim with



The Heroes of the Long Sault worship in the chapel of the Hôtel-Dieu

tears and shining with pride, for there was not a child in the settlement who did not know the terrors which the young men were going out to face. Most of his companions, like Dollard, were recent immigrants from France, unskilled in forest warfare, and unfamiliar even with the handling of birch-bark canoes. For fully a week they strove in vain to pass the swift current of Ste. Anne's, at the western end of the island of Montreal. At length, however, they made the passage and paddled up the Ottawa.

THEY TAKE THEIR STAND

At the lower end of the Long Sault—a series of rapids which interrupts navigation on the Ottawa for fifteen miles—they stopped. Here they found a rough log fort which an Algonquin war-party had built the year before. In it they took their stand, and here, with a small party of forty-four friendly Indians who had joined them, they waited for the Iroquois.

They had not long to wait. Two days later some Iroquois canoes came dancing down the rapids. Dollard and his men took cover, and as the canoes neared the shore they opened fire. The canoes were upset, and most of their

occupants were drowned or shot. But at least one of the Iroquois escaped to the opposite shore, and succeeded in carrying news of the encounter to the main body of the Iroquois up the river. In a short time, two hundred Iroquois warriors, thirsting for revenge, came swarming down the Long Sault. Dollard and his men took refuge in the palisade, and only by volley after volley did the French succeed in beating off the first Iroquois attack.

THEY FOUGHT A GOOD FIGHT

The details of the siege that followed are uncertain. But this much is clear. After the failure of their first attack, the Iroquois retired into the forest, and there constructed a fort of their own. From this they sallied forth at length, and tried to set fire to the Frenchmen's palisade. With armfuls of blazing birch-bark, they rushed forward, but so brisk was the fire of musketry they encountered that they fell back. Three times their chiefs urged them forward, three times they quailed before the fire of the defence, and turned tail, leaving their dead behind them.

Discouraged by these failures, the Iroquois sent off a canoe to summon reinforcements. While they waited for these reinforcements, they kept up a siege of the fort, preventing Dollard and his men from going down to the river for water, and forcing them to be ever on the alert. Hunger, thirst, and lack of sleep at last did their work. One morning all but four Indians deserted to the enemy. Dollard and his companions were left almost alone.

On the fifth day of the siege, five hundred warriors who had been planning to attack Quebec and Three Rivers joined the Iroquois. Shouting their savage war-cry, hundreds of Iroquois closed in upon the little fort. A volley from the fort drove them back for a moment. But they



Dollard's hand-made bomb acts like a boomerang

returned to the attack. A special band of warriors was chosen to lead the way, protected by huge shields made of split logs bound together with the aid of cross-bars. Crouching behind these shelters, they made their way up to the palisade, and proceeded to attack with their tomahawks.

By this time the defenders of the fort were in grave straits. Deprived of water, they could scarcely swallow food. But there was in their minds no thought of surrender. Dollard had made a hand-bomb, and the fuse of this he now lit, intending to throw it among the Iroquois. Unfortunately, in his weakened condition, he did not throw it clear of the palisade. It struck the ragged top, and fell back into the fort. There it exploded, killing and wounding several of the defenders, and blinding the rest. In the confusion that followed, the Iroquois swarmed into the fort. Dollard and his surviving companions met them with the courage of despair. Back to back, with a sword in one hand and a hatchet in the other, they sold their lives as dearly as they could. At last, the Iroquois, despairing of taking them alive, shot them down one by one.

So perished the heroes of the Long Sault. Of them it may truly be said that they died to save others. The gallant stand they made proved the salvation of New France. The Iroquois warriors had had their fill of fighting. If seventeen Frenchmen and a few Indians behind a rude palisade could hold at bay for over a week hundreds of the picked warriors of the Iroquois tribes, what sort of resistance might be expected from the walled towns of Montreal, Three Rivers, and Quebec? The Iroquois went home, therefore, to their villages, to mourn their losses, and to nurse their anger against the day of vengeance. But in the little settlement of New France men went about their business in the fields and forest, and in the parish churches masses were said for the souls of the departed heroes.

11. Government by the King's Officers

"Paternal royalty would try its hand at building up a colony, and Talon was its chosen agent."
FRANCIS PARKMAN: *The Old Regime in Canada*

Until 1663 — fifty-five years after Champlain had founded Quebec — Canada grew very slowly. The total population of the colony numbered very little over three thousand. There were only three towns, Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal. There were no roads connecting these towns. All traffic was by boat up and down the St. Lawrence River.

There were several reasons for the slow growth of New France. The fur companies agreed to bring out colonists but they did not live up to their agreement. It was not

easy to persuade colonists to come, for the people in France had heard of the Iroquois raids, and of the cold winters. They knew that many of the settlers had died of scurvy during the long winters. Settlers from England had gone in greater numbers to the English colonies to the south, many of them seeking a new land where they could worship as they pleased and not as the monarch ordered. The King of France was a Roman Catholic, and wished only Roman Catholics to settle in New France. Many French Protestants might have come to New France, but the King would not allow them to do so.

THE KING TAKES OVER

In 1663 a new era dawned for New France. Louis XIV of France and his wise adviser, Colbert, decided that they would encourage the colonies in the hope of increasing French trade. Louis cancelled the charter of the fur-trading company and appointed three officers to govern in his name. The governor was to be in charge of the army and of the defence of the colony. The bishop was to look after religion and education. The intendant was to act as a business manager. A council consisting of these three officers and a few residents of the colony was to draw up regulations to govern the colony.

LAVAL—THE FIRST BISHOP

François de Laval was the first bishop. He had come to Canada in 1659 and it was largely due to his report on conditions in Canada that the King decided to cancel the charter of the fur-trading company. As a member of the Council, Laval took an active part in passing the laws and regulations which governed the lives of the settlers. He was deeply concerned about the Indians. The fur-traders had found out that brandy was what the Indians

wanted most in exchange for their furs. Unfortunately when the Indians became drunk, they became very violent and terrorized the countryside. Laval tried to pass regulations to forbid the sale of liquor to the Indians. He saw that the missionaries would never be able to convert the Indians to Christianity as long as the traders supplied them with liquor. The traders said that if they did not give the Indians brandy the Indians would take their furs to the English and the fur trade would be ruined. Regulations were made forbidding the sale of brandy to the Indians but these regulations were not always obeyed.

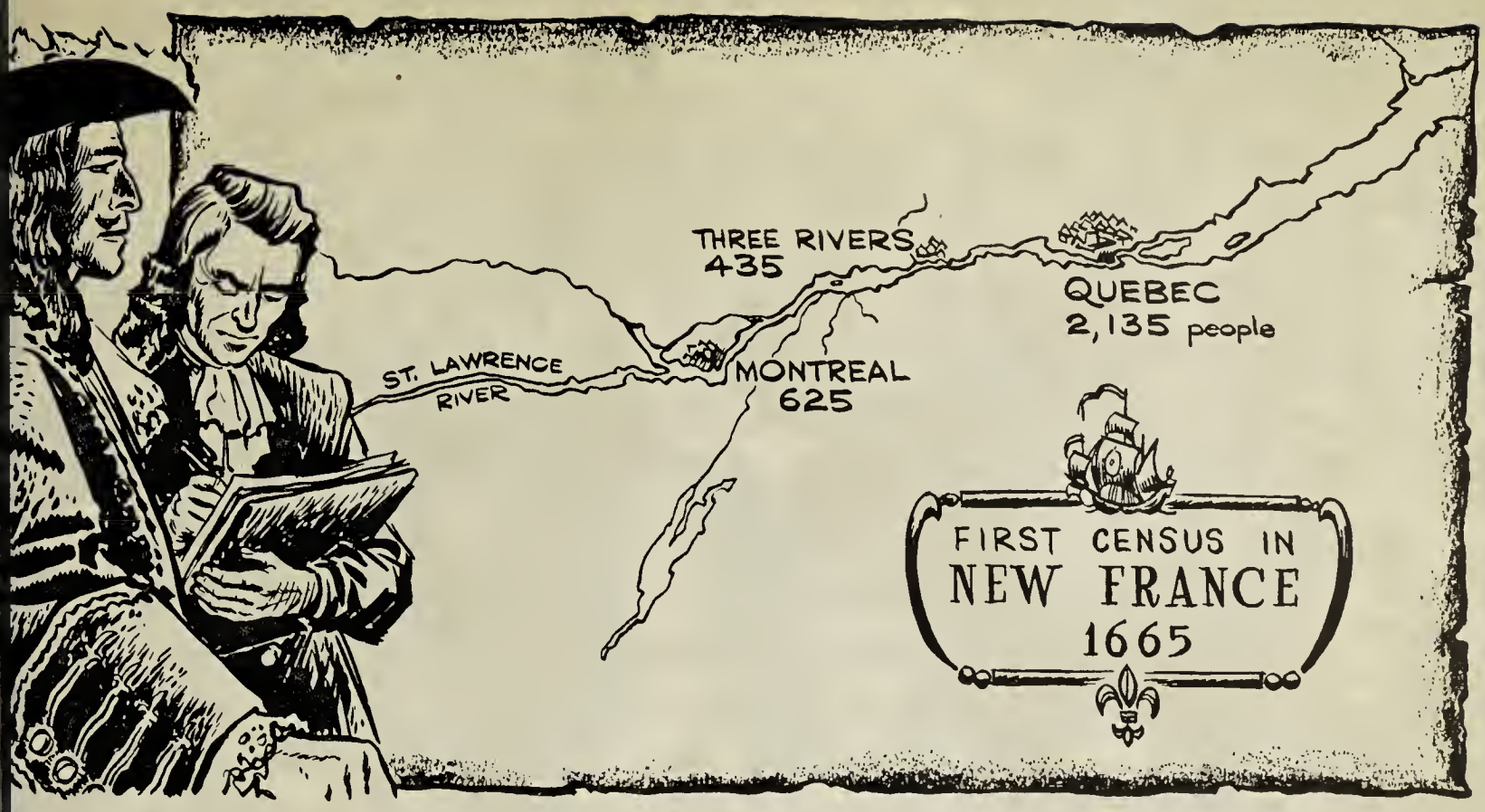
Laval was interested in educating young Canadians to be priests, and, in 1663, he founded a seminary, which was the beginning of Canada's oldest university, Laval University. He divided the colony into parishes and chose priests for each parish. In Quebec to-day there are many monuments to this great bishop and the name of Laval is held in high honour.



BISHOP
FRANÇOIS de LAVAL



JEAN BAPTISTE TALON



TALON—THE FIRST INTENDANT

Jean Talon was the first and the greatest of the intendants. He was only seven years in New France, but in that short time he earned a place as one of the first "Makers of Canada".

Talon arrived in Quebec in the summer of 1665. Immediately he set about finding out everything he could about the colony. There is a story that, to obtain true information, he went about at first pretending to be his own servant. He thought that people would speak more freely to a servant than to the King's officer.

He ordered a census of all the people and of all the livestock in the colony. This was the first thorough census ever taken in Canada. It showed that there were 528 families in the colony and a total population of 3,215, not counting the soldiers who were stationed there to defend the colony. Quebec, with the seigniories near it, had 2,135 people. In the district of Three Rivers there were 435, and in the district of Montreal 625. Over one-third of the population was under sixteen years of age.



Talon decided that the first need of the colony was for more settlers. There were two ways in which the population might be increased. One was by bringing more settlers from France. The other was by encouraging early marriages and large families. Talon tried both methods.

When some of the companies of the regiment which had come out to fight the Iroquois were being disbanded, Talon offered free land, free provisions for a year, and a sum of money for everyone who would stay in Canada. Several officers and about four hundred of the men decided to stay and accept his offer.

Talon wrote to the King urging him to send settlers every year. The King, at his own expense, sent out several ship-loads of people. But when Talon in his enthusiasm to found a great colony kept asking for more and more settlers, the King's ministers replied that it would not be wise "to empty France to fill New France". This reply did not daunt Talon.

THE "KING'S DAUGHTERS"

In any pioneer settlement there are always more men than women. There were many bachelors in New France. Talon asked that ship-loads of girls be sent out to become the wives of the bachelors. The King agreed to this proposal, and sent agents to find healthy and industrious girls of good character who were willing to go to Canada.

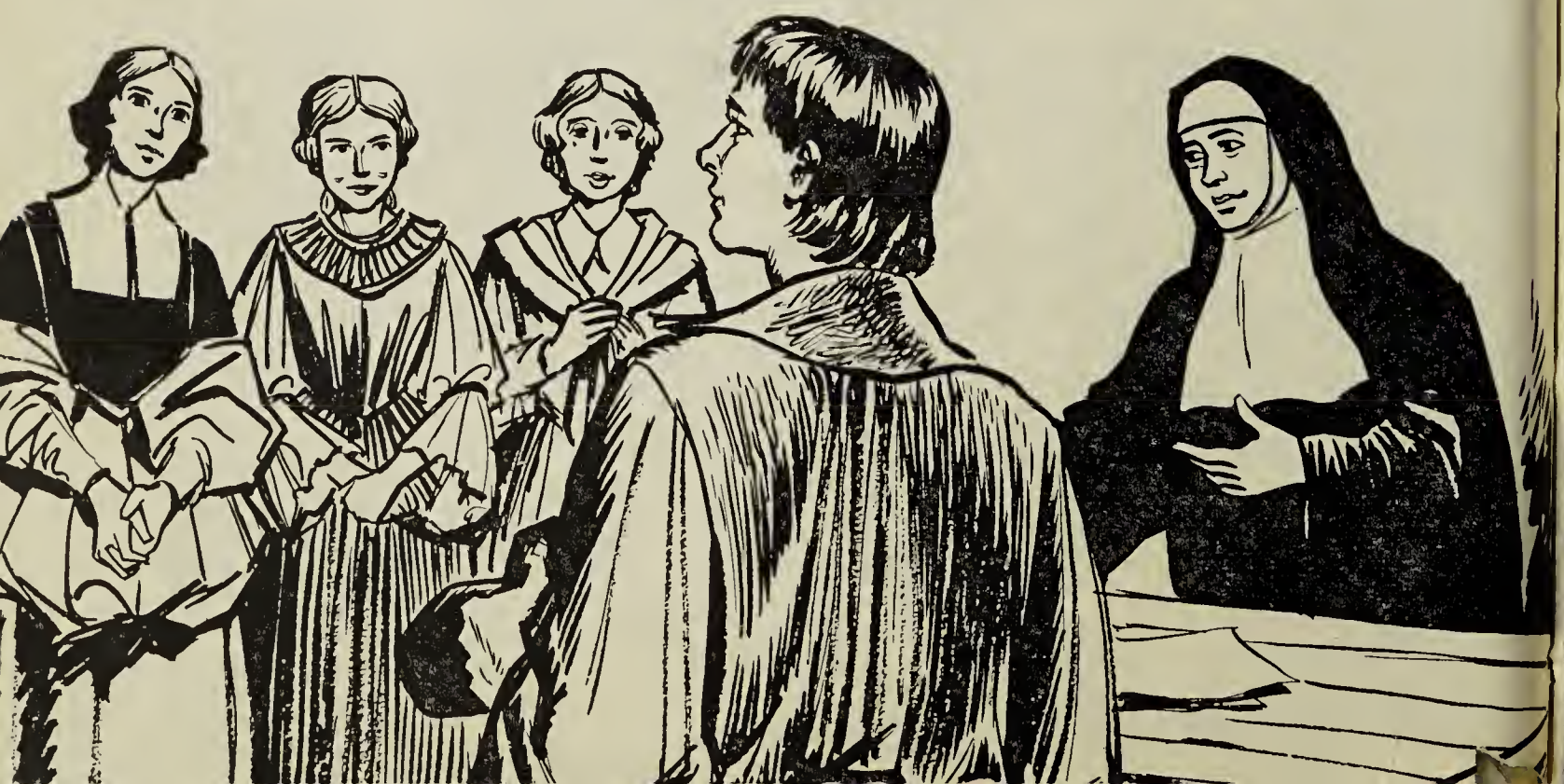
Two nuns accompanied the "King's Daughters", as these girls were called, on the long sea voyage. The girls must have gossiped and wondered about the new life ahead of them. Many must have feared the future, while others looked forward eagerly to the prospect of a husband and a home in the new land.

Great was the excitement in Quebec when the ship with the "King's Daughters" arrived. The bachelors gathered in Quebec, each hoping to have first choice in picking a wife. But they were not allowed to take the girls of their choice at the wharf. The girls were taken to the Ursuline Convent for a day's rest.

The next day, the bachelors made their way to the Convent, but they did not meet the girls. They met the Mother Superior who made them give an account of themselves. How much land had they cleared? Had they a home built? Had they furniture and stock? Did they attend church regularly? Were they in good standing with their seignior? Many of them had very little to say for themselves.

Next the Mother Superior consulted the nuns who had been in charge of the girls on shipboard. They decided which girls would best suit each young man. Several girls were brought in and introduced. The man might choose the strongest, or most sensible looking, or the prettiest. He could talk to her, tell her what he had and his hopes for the future. She could decide to marry him or not as she wished. No girl was forced to marry a man she did not like.

The men of New France have a difficult time selecting their brides



Talon also encouraged early marriages. Parents were advised to see that their sons were married before they were twenty and their daughters when they were sixteen. Any man who married before he was twenty received a gift of money from the governor. Men who were not married were not allowed to go to the woods to hunt.

There was a system of family allowances. Three hundred francs were given to the parents of ten children, and four hundred francs were given to the parents of twelve. Even without the family allowance, a large family was an advantage. There was land to be cleared and plenty of work both in the fields and in the homes which strong sons and daughters could do.

So successful were Talon's efforts that in 1671 he was able to report that in that one year nearly seven hundred babies had been baptized in the colony.

TALON TRIES HARD TO MAKE NEW FRANCE PROSPER

Meanwhile the enterprising intendant did everything he could to make the colony so prosperous that people would be eager to settle there. He imported from France many horses, cattle, and sheep. Until his time there had been in New France only one horse—a gift to one of the governors from the fur-trading company.

Talon had looms brought from France and insisted that the habitant women and girls should learn to spin and weave the wool from their own sheep. They soon learned to make strong homespun cloth from which they made clothing for the whole family. In order to encourage the habitants to grow hemp and flax, he supplied the seed. From the hemp, bags and coarse cloth could be made. From the flax, linen could be spun and woven.



Trade between New France and the West Indies is developed under Talon

Though there were oxen and cattle in the colony before Talon came, no use was being made of their hides. He established a tannery and thus made possible the manufacture of shoes and other leather goods in the colony. Before he returned to France, he was able to report: "I am now clothed from head to foot with home-made articles."

Talon was not satisfied with these steps toward making the colony self-supporting. He was determined to build up trade. He built a ship-yard at Quebec, where Canadian lumber was used in building ships. He encouraged the cod and seal fisheries of the St. Lawrence, and the making of potash and tar. Then he found a market for Canadian products by developing trade with the West Indies. Ships sailed from Quebec to the West Indies with cargoes of lumber, peas, and fish. From the West Indies they carried cargoes of rum and sugar to France, then from France they brought to Canada manufactured articles needed by the colonists. Under Talon, Canada began for the first time to enjoy prosperity.

12. Life in New France

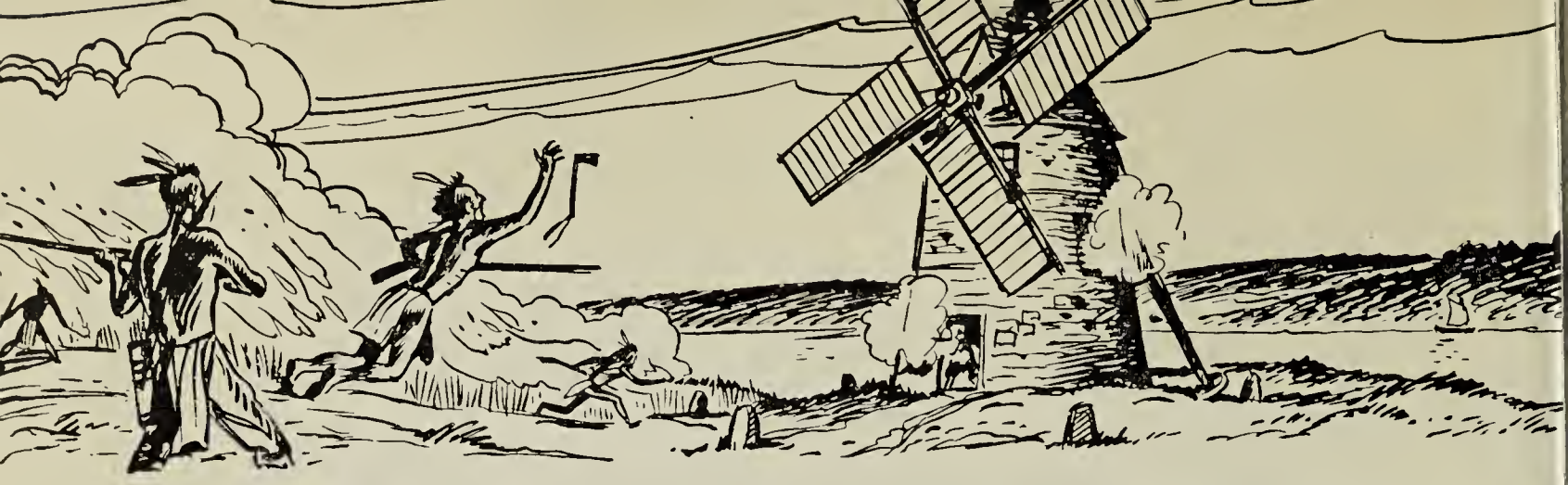
"Here in the dawn of a great nation's morning."
ALBERT D. WATSON: *Canada's Call*

LAND GRANTS TO SEIGNIORS

In France, land was still held according to the feudal system which had grown up during the Middle Ages. The King owned all the land. He granted large areas to the powerful nobles, who in turn granted most of their land to less powerful nobles, who in turn granted small areas to peasants who farmed the land. This was a method devised for protection against enemies. The peasants produced the food; the overlords protected them in time of war.

It was natural that the King of France should set up the same system in New France. Large tracts of land were granted to nobles, or to soldiers, or to merchants, who were willing to try life in the new country. A man who held a grant of land from the King was called a *seignior* and his land was called his *seigniory*. The seignior was expected to find tenants to take part of his land and farm it. These tenants were called *habitants*.

Some seigniories were very large; others were small. When the seignior received his grant of land, he had to appear before the governor at Quebec and on bended knee promise loyalty and obedience to the King of France. Though he paid no money for his seigniory he had certain duties. He had to give the governor a map of his seigniory and a report of the number of people on it, the number of horses, oxen, cows, sheep, pigs, and poultry he owned, what crops he was growing, and how much land he had cleared. It was his duty to see that the habitants cleared



The grist mill is used for defence as well as for grinding grain

and tilled a fair amount of land. If two tenants had a dispute, he heard both sides and decided which was right. Wrongdoers were brought before him for trial, and he decided what their punishment should be.

By the terms of his grant the seignior was required to build a grist mill. The habitants were obliged to use it and to give the seignior some of their flour in return for having their grain ground in the mill. Though the habitant sometimes complained about the quality of the flour and the seignior declared that the mill did not pay expenses, it was a wise law that required a mill on each seigniory. These mills were usually built of stone and in case of attack the families living on the seigniory could take refuge there. The mills sometimes served as look-out towers, too. The seignior was responsible for organizing the habitants to defend the settlement against the Indians or the English whenever it was necessary to do so.

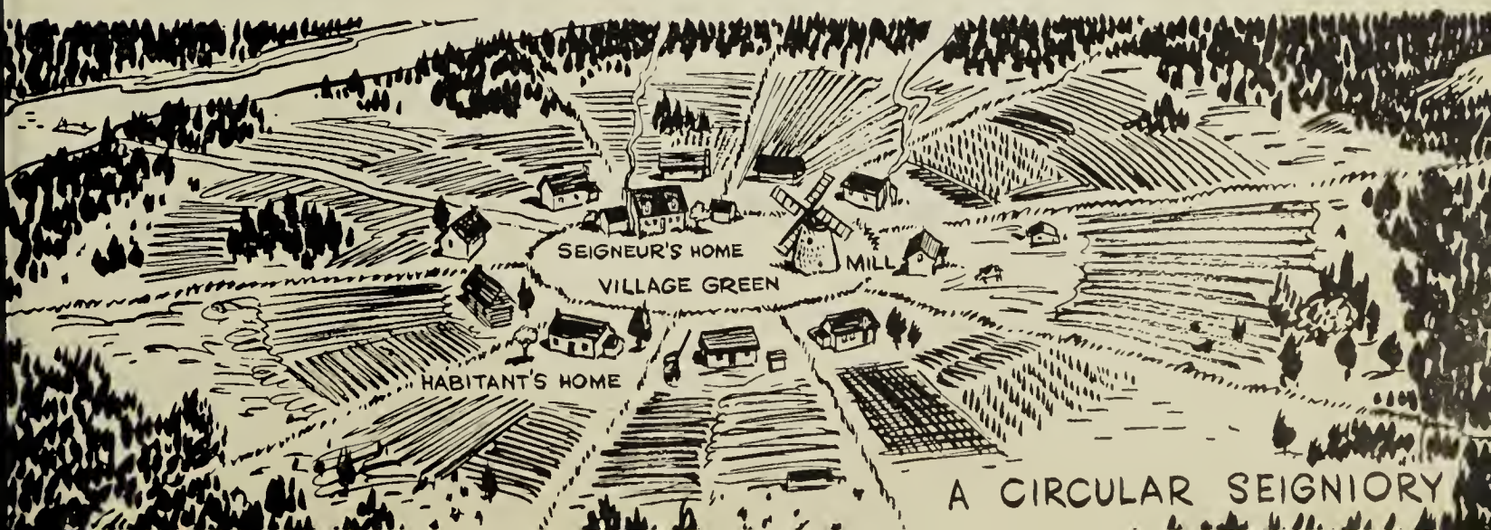
It was not easy for the seigniors to find settlers who would come to Canada. Few people were willing to leave their homes in France, however poor those homes were. They feared the ocean voyage and the severe winters. Above all, they dreaded the attacks of the Indians. Some of the seigniors brought tenants with them when they came. Others had agents in France who sought out settlers willing to try their fortunes in the new land. Some seigniors

went home to France to seek new settlers. Others met every boat that came to port and tried to persuade newcomers to come to their seigniories.

The habitants had to work a certain number of days each year, usually not more than six, in the seigniors' fields. In return for their lands they had to make certain payments which took the place of rent and taxes. Usually these payments were made partly in money, and partly in goods, such as wheat, barley, pigs, geese, or chickens.

The seigniories were usually on the bank of a river and might extend a couple of miles back from it. The grants to the habitants were long strips, each with river frontage. There on the bank of the river, which was the only highway in the new land, the habitant built his cabin. In some parts the houses were so close together and the strips were so narrow that the colony looked like a long straggling village street.

When most of the good land along the rivers was taken up, Talon devised a plan for seigniories which were not on the river front. The farms were surveyed in triangles which formed a circle. A space was left in the centre, in which the seignior and the habitants built their homes. It was part of Talon's plan to have a carpenter, a stonemason, and a shoemaker in each group. On these seigniories the homes of the habitants were close together, and, more important still, they were near the seignior's house. In the seignior's home, or in his mill, the habitants could find refuge in case of an attack by an enemy.



A CIRCULAR SEIGNIORY

The first priests who came to New France came as missionaries to the Indians. But it was not long before other priests came to teach the children of both Indian and French parents. Father le Jeune, of the Jesuit order, who came to Quebec in 1632, spent his first winter there teaching. He began with one Indian boy, and one negro boy, who had been given as a present to Madame Hébert by the English during the time they held Quebec (1629-1632). Before spring came, Father le Jeune had over twenty pupils.

Seven years later, in 1639, the people of Quebec rushed down to welcome a ship arriving from France. The guns of the fortress were fired in salute. There was great rejoicing. On this ship came three sisters of the Ursuline order to found a school and three nuns to establish a hospital. The Mother Superior of the Ursulines was Mère Marie de l'Incarnation. Her letters have been printed and in them historians have found a vivid account of the life in New France, of the customs of the people, the problems they had to meet, and the dangers they faced. With the Ursulines came Madame de la Peltrie, a wealthy widow, who was devoting her fortune to establishing the venture.

The Ursulines opened their school at once, with six little Indian girls as pupils. But it was many months before they could give much of their time to teaching. There was a plague of smallpox and they had to help the sisters in the hospital.

Another heroic woman in Canada's story is Jeanne Mance. She came in 1642 with the party Maisonneuve brought to found a mission at Montreal. A rich lady in France gave the money needed for a hospital and Jeanne Mance offered to take charge of it. A few months after the expedition reached Montreal, the Iroquois attacked

the little settlement. Several men were killed, others were wounded. From that day Jeanne Mance never lacked patients. To her hospital came workmen wounded by accident in the forests, men wounded in fights with the Indians, friendly Indians who were sick or wounded, and even sometimes a wounded or dying Iroquois.

In 1653 Marguerite de Bourgeoys arrived in Montreal to found a school. Since there were no white children to teach, she began with little Indian girls whose parents were willing to let them attend. Her first schoolroom was a stable, the only building Maisonneuve could spare for her work.

At first, before the settlements were well established, the priests lived in Quebec or Montreal and made visits to the seigniories. When they came they held religious services, baptized the new babies, taught the catechism to the young people of the settlement, and married the young couples who had been waiting for the priest's visit for their wedding. As soon as the settlement was large enough, a church was built and a priest came to stay. Every farmer gave a percentage of his crop of grain to support the church.

The church played a very important part in the lives of the habitants. On Sunday, all dressed in their best, the family went to mass. If anyone did not go, the curé was soon around to find out why. After the service the habitants lingered to gossip and learn the news of the neighbourhood. Every Sunday, after church, the leading habitant, who had been chosen as captain of the militia, read the notices from the officials and posted them up on the wall so that all who could read might study them. It was then that the habitants discussed any requests they wanted the captain of the militia to make to the governor or the intendant for them.

A few of the seigniors were wealthy and had large comfortable homes built of stone. They had fine furniture and fashionable clothing sent from France. In their manors there were servants to do the work of the household. Some seigniors could afford to send their sons and daughters to France to be educated. Others had to depend for a living on the land they farmed.

The habitants built small log cabins for themselves, and later, as they became more prosperous, they enlarged them, or built better ones, usually with an attic where the children slept. They made their own furniture.

After the first difficult years food was plentiful. There was usually plenty of game and fish. Bread was baked in outdoor ovens, built of stone and roofed with wood. Cooking was done in open fire-places. An industrious habitant could grow plenty of vegetables and tobacco in his garden. Pea soup, corn cakes, and maple syrup were regular fare for the habitant and seignior alike.

After Talon's time, nearly every home had its spinning-wheel and its loom. The habitant's wife and daughters spun the wool, hemp, and flax into cloth. From this home-spun cloth they made sturdy clothing for the whole family. They wove blankets for their beds, and rugs for their floors. Since they liked bright colours, they learned to use the juice of berries and the bark of certain trees to dye their wool.

To-day hand-woven rugs and blankets and other handicrafts made by the descendants of these early settlers are sought after by tourists who visit Quebec.

You can still see outdoor ovens like this in Quebec to-day



THE QUEBEC MARKET

In Talon's time the habitant and his wife peddled their surplus goods from door to door, but later a market was set up. At eight o'clock a bell was rung to announce that the market was open. The habitant displayed his vegetables, grain, and poultry. His wife sat with her baskets around her, baskets in which there might be eggs, butter, cheese, or maple syrup. Sometimes she brought blankets or rugs she had woven, or toques, mittens, scarves, or socks she had knitted. Indian women, too, came with baskets, beaded moccasins, toboggans, or snowshoes to sell.

From eight to ten the housewives came to buy. After ten o'clock the merchants were allowed to buy for their shops. The market was soon cleared of goods. Then the habitant and his wife went to the shops to buy the things they could not grow for themselves, usually coffee, chocolate, sugar, salt, or spices.

The habitants loved to drive a hard bargain—that was part of the fun. If they got a better price for their produce than their neighbours did, they were greatly pleased. They enjoyed, too, meeting the townspeople and hearing the latest news.

THE HABITANTS ENJOYED LIFE

It was far from all work and no play in New France. The settlers liked to visit their neighbours and every good housewife was always ready for company. The habitants were happy singing the songs of old France, and they loved to dance. The fiddler was always popular.

There were two yearly entertainments at the manor house, St. Martin's Day in the autumn, and the planting of the maypole in the spring.



The *habitants* paid rent in produce

ST. MARTIN'S DAY

On St. Martin's Day, November 11th, the habitants gathered at the home of the seignior to pay their rent. For weeks they had been preparing for this visit. If there were any new winter clothes, this finery made its first appearance on St. Martin's Day. The men selected carefully the produce they were going to take to the seignior as part payment of the rent for their land. Some brought grain or vegetables. Others had agreed to pay "four fat hens" or "two fine ducks", or perhaps, "a young pig of the spring litter".

Great was the excitement in every home when the important day came. The farm work was done quickly, the house set in order, and all the family dressed in their best. Away they went, in a cart, if they had one; on foot, if they had no cart. There was worry in some homes, too. Most

of the habitants were hard workers, and when St. Martin's Day came they were ready with their rent. But some were lazy or had had bad luck and were not ready with their payment. The seigniors were usually kind if a habitant was not able to make his payment because he had had some misfortune, but they could be very stern with a man who was lazy. And no one liked to be shamed before his neighbours.

Every man looked carefully at every payment, and it was a happy man who could boast to his wife on the way home, "There were no finer hens than ours brought to the seignior to-day," or "That Pierre, bragging about his barley . . . . did you see it? It wasn't nearly as good as ours."

After the business of the day the seignior provided a feast, and the rest of the day was a party. The children played games, while the boys and the young men had contests of strength and skill. Later the young people danced and sang, while the older people gossiped and the little children, fast asleep, were tucked away into corners. Long after dark, the habitants made their way home, the rent paid for the year and the party over.

THE PLANTING OF THE MAYPOLE

Throughout the last week in April the seignior's family and servants prepared for May Day. They cooked roasts of veal and mutton, great pans full of spare-ribs, and pork cutlets, and a huge stew of pork and mutton for the old people who had lost their teeth. They had pies made in crescent shape, doughnuts, and pancakes rolled in maple sugar. They had wine and brandy and coffee ready to serve.

Early on the first of May the habitants marched up to the manor house carrying the maypole. The seignior's family did not even look out of the window until the leader of the habitants knocked at the door. When the seignior opened the door, he pretended that he was surprised to see the procession. The habitants formally requested permission to plant a maypole and the seignior, just as formally, granted them permission. Then the seignior and his family came out and joined the habitants. After a prayer for protection during the day, the maypole was raised. The leader of the habitants asked the seignior to "blacken the maypole" and the seignior fired a blank charge at the top of the pole. After him, all the members of his family in turn fired a shot at it. Then the habitants started shooting. The more powder they burned, the greater the compliment to the seignior.

When the seignior thought his guests were tired of shooting at the maypole, he invited them in for refreshments. Every few minutes, however, someone would leap from the table, grab his gun, dash out, and fire another shot at the maypole. After the feasting was over, young and old took part in games, dancing, singing, and friendly chatter until nightfall.

The planting of the maypole was the great festival of spring, as St. Martin's Day was of the fall of the year.

Part of the festivities on May Day in French Canada was the "blackening of the maypole"





Though the life of the *coureurs de bois* is hard, they would not change it for any other

THE COUREURS DE BOIS

Many young men, who found life dull on the farm, wanted to be fur-traders. But no one was allowed to trade for furs without a licence and the governor granted few licences. The law was severe; anyone found bringing in furs without a licence might be hanged. Nevertheless, many young men, some habitants, some seigniors, restless on the farms, and eager to make money, slipped away to the forest to hunt and trade with the Indians. They were called *coureurs de bois*, runners of the woods.

These coureurs de bois learned from the Indians how to travel through the trackless forests, how to find food and shelter, how to hide from their enemies. Some lived with Indian tribes, married Indian women, and returned seldom to the settlements. Others, after a few years in the woods, came home and settled down to live quietly on their farms.

The governor, the bishop, and the intendant disapproved of the coureurs de bois. They wanted these young men to stay at home on their farms, to go to church regularly, to marry and bring up large families, and to keep out of the fur trade. Even though the authorities disapproved of the coureurs de bois, there can be no doubt that they made an important contribution to the growth of the colony. They explored its lakes and rivers. They made friends of the Indians, and they learned from them how they fought against an enemy, knowledge that the governor was glad to use in the wars against the English.

For Further Study

1. There are many wild horses on Sable Island. Can you find out why? Sable Island has been called "the graveyard of the Atlantic". How did it earn this name? What activities are there on Sable Island to-day?

2. Marc Lescarbot, who was with De Monts and Champlain at Port Royal, wrote a description of *The Order of Good Cheer* which you might find entertaining. (You can find it in *The Founder of New France* (Chronicles of Canada) pp. 52-54.)

3. Organize a debate on the topic: "Resolved that Champlain made a mistake when he helped the Hurons against the Iroquois".

4. Imagine that you came to Ville-Marie with Maisonneuve. Write a letter to your brother in France describing your experiences.

5. Make a mural depicting the growth of Montreal from the little mission station of Ville-Marie.

6. Prepare a speech of farewell to Talon expressing the gratitude of the people of New France for his services to the colony.

7. In Donalda Dickie's *When Canada Was Young*, there are two plays which you might enjoy presenting to the class.

The costumes and settings are very simple and no one part involves very much memorizing. The plays are *A Morning in the Court* and *St. Martin's Day.*

8. Imagine you are an old habitant who was a coureur de bois in his younger days. What stories you might tell your grandchildren about your adventures! Prepare one for the class.

9. Imagine you are the wife of a seignior in New France. What preparations would you make for May Day? What food would you prepare?

10. Do you know any French songs? Perhaps you could find some and learn them. *En roulant ma boule roulant* would be a good one.

11. Add Champlain's *Le Don de Dieu* to your Book of Ships.

12. In 1908 a set of stamps was issued to celebrate the 300th anniversary of the founding of Quebec. Try to get the one-cent stamp with the picture of Champlain and Cartier, the five-cent one with a picture of Champlain's *Habitation,* and the fifteen-cent one depicting Champlain's departure for the West. The dollar 1935 stamp reproduces a picture of the Champlain monument at Orillia.


SEP:
TENTELIO
NALEVM
VIR
SECTAN
GINIA
FLORIDAE

III. *Fur-Traders Open Up the Continent*

13. Champlain's Young Men

"Something hidden. Go and find it.
Go and look beyond the ranges—
Something lost beyond the ranges.
Lost and waiting for you. Go!"

RUDYARD KIPLING: *The Explorers*

The French did not find in Canada the gold and precious gems they sought. For many years furs were Canada's only export. To the fur-traders belongs the credit for most of the exploration of the new land. Some of the traders, like Champlain, were explorers at heart and counted on the fur trade to pay the cost of their expeditions. Others sought only profit for themselves. The story of the ventures of the fur-traders is the story of the exploration of our country. Truly, the fur trade may be called the life-blood of the colony.

Before Champlain came to Canada, he had been a geographer and map-maker. He longed to add to the world's knowledge of this new land. Realizing that the fur trade would have to pay the cost of exploration, he wanted to make friends of the Indians who could supply the colony with furs. He sent young men to live with the Hurons and Algonquins, hoping that they would learn the language and the customs of the Indians. He hoped, too, that they would come back to him with news of a passage to the Western Sea. Some of his young men served him

well, but others brought him only grief and disappointment.

"THE MOST SHAMELESS LIAR EVER BORN"

Champlain sent Nicholas Vignau to spend a winter with the Algonquins. When Vignau returned in the spring he reported to Champlain that he had seen the North Sea and that on its shores he had seen the wreck of an English ship. He declared that he had seen the scalps of Englishmen who had been killed by the Indians for trying to seize their supplies of corn. He assured Champlain that the Indians had a captive English lad who would be given to Champlain if he visited them. A party could go, according to Vignau, up the Ottawa to the North Sea and back in seventeen days.

Champlain was delighted with this report. In his journal he wrote, "This intelligence greatly pleased me, for I thought that I had almost found that for which I had a long time been searching."

Bitter disappointment was in store for Champlain. In the spring of 1613 he set out with Vignau to find the North Sea. Vignau made every excuse for delaying. When they met the chief of the Algonquins at Lake Allumette, Champlain spoke of Vignau's expedition of the previous winter, and found out that the whole story about the North Sea was a lie. The chief told him that Vignau had spent the previous winter with his tribe. Champlain declared Vignau "the most shameless liar ever born".

Champlain orders Vignau from his presence



"Overcome with wrath," Champlain wrote in his journal, "I had him removed, being unable to endure him longer in my presence."

The Indians wanted to kill Vignau for his deceit, but Champlain spared his life. The liar's punishment was that he had to confess his misdeeds to the assembled French traders when the expedition returned to New France.

THE LADS WHO BECAME TRAITORS TO FRANCE

When Champlain came to the St. Lawrence in 1608 he had with him two boys, Etienne Brulé and Nicholas Marsolet. Brulé was probably fourteen, Marsolet a little older. These two were among the eight who survived that first terrible winter, the winter of 1608, in Quebec.

They were bright boys. Without making any great effort, they picked up the Indian language and adapted themselves to the Indian way of living. They learned to endure the dirt, the smell, and the smoke of the Indian wigwams. Champlain and the missionaries found it hard to eat the food the Indians gave them, but the boys were not troubled by any concern as to whether the food was clean or not.

When Brulé suggested that he would like to spend a winter among the Algonquins to learn their language and their customs, Champlain agreed to arrange it. "I want you, also," he instructed Brulé, "to observe the country, its rivers and communications. Find out about minerals. If possible, make your way westward to the great lake. Keep your eyes open and on your return make a good report of what will be useful to us."

Brulé spent a winter among the Algonquins, and, later, one among the Hurons. He learned their languages so well that he became Champlain's chief interpreter. We



do not know exactly where Brulé went. He does not seem to have kept any journal of his travels. Probably he could not read or write. When, from time to time, he returned to the settlement, he told Champlain about his wanderings, and Champlain made notes about them in his journals.

From careful study of Champlain's writings, historians have concluded that Brulé was the first white man to see Lake Huron, Lake Erie, and Lake Superior. They agree that he crossed over to the country south-east of the Great Lakes, and that on one of his expeditions he travelled overland as far south as Chesapeake Bay.

When David Kirke took Quebec in 1629, Champlain was dismayed to find that two of his company were Etienne Brulé and Nicholas Marsolet. The lads who had been with him the first winter in Quebec, his best interpreters, had sold their honour to the enemy. He turned upon them with scorn.

"To think of you, brought up from boyhood in these parts, turning around now and selling those who put bread in your mouths," he said. "You will be pointed at with scorn on all sides wherever you may be. 'These are the men,' people will say, 'who betrayed their King and sold their country.' Better would it be for you to die than to live in the world under such conditions, for whatever happens, you will always have a worm gnawing at your conscience."

Champlain was more fortunate when he sent Jean Nicolet out to the western country. Nicolet had come to Canada when he was eighteen years old, and had spent eight years with the Nipissing Indians. He liked the Indians and the Indians liked him.

In 1634 Nicolet set out for the west, accompanied by a missionary, Father Vimont, who wrote the story of their travels. They went to Sault Ste. Marie, to Lake Michigan, and into the country west of Lake Michigan.

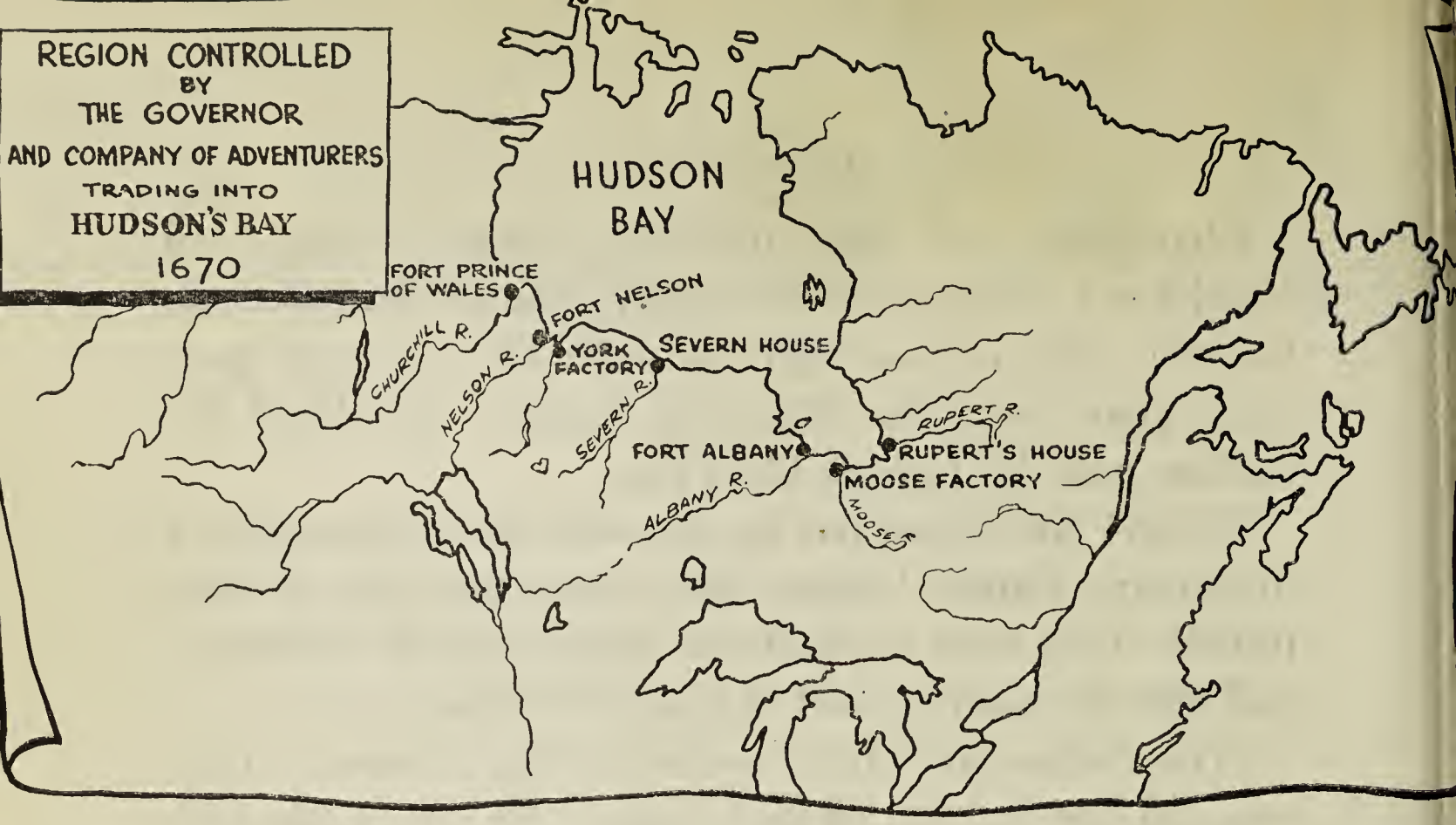
"The Indians met him," wrote Father Vimont. "They escorted him and carried his baggage. He wore a fine robe of China damask all strewn with flowers and birds of many colours. No sooner did they perceive him than the women and children fled at the sight of the man who carried thunder in both hands, for thus they called his pistols."

Nicolet had taken the fine robe of China damask so that he would be properly dressed if he should chance to meet the Emperor of China or of India on his travels. He met only the Indians of the Green Bay area. History does not relate what they thought about his fine robe with its rich embroidery of flowers and birds. We do know, however, that he was successful in persuading the Indians of the district to bring their furs down to the trading-post at Three Rivers in the spring of 1635.

Nicolet was one of Champlain's young men who did not bring grief and disappointment to his leader.

Nicolet impresses the Indians with his beautiful robe





14. The Founding of the Hudson's Bay Company

"They vanish in the wilderness, go forth mysteriously,
And ere a year be passed, return with half a kingdom
for their spoil."

O. J. STEVENSON: *Pathfinders*

The story of the founding of the Hudson's Bay Company is one of the strangest imaginable. It is a drama in which kings and courtiers rub shoulders with French-Canadian fur-traders and English sea-dogs. Its scenes are laid, not only on the cold barren shores of Hudson Bay, but also in London and Paris, in Quebec and Boston, and on the Great Lakes and the rivers and lakes north of Lake Superior.

The King was Charles II of England. The most famous of the courtiers was his cousin, Prince Rupert. The French fur-traders were Pierre Radisson and his brother-in-law, Groseilliers, nicknamed by their English friends, "Mr. Radishes" and "Mr. Gooseberry".

When Pierre Radisson was a boy in his teens, he was taken captive by the Iroquois. Usually the Indians tortured their prisoners and put them to death, but for some reason they did not kill Pierre. An Iroquois family adopted him. During his captivity he learned their language. He learned how they hunted, how they travelled, how they made war. He heard about the tribes in the north-west who lived in a territory rich in fur-bearing animals.

After a few years Radisson escaped and returned to his home in Three Rivers. He told his friends about his life with the Indians and about the furs they might get if they dared to go up into the Indian country. His brother-in-law, Groseilliers, decided to go with Pierre to trade with the western Indians.

There is some doubt as to when the two adventurers set forth. Historians, who have studied the records carefully, think it was probably in the year 1659. The canoes were loaded with goods for trade—hatchets, knives, sword-blades, awls, needles, brass rings, ivory and wooden combs, tin mirrors, small bells, red paint, necklaces, and beads.

Young Radisson is captured by the Indians. His life with them proves advantageous to his later career



These hardy traders made their way up the St. Lawrence and up the Ottawa River. Later, when they were trying to secure English support for their ventures, Pierre Radisson wrote the story of their journey. His account of his explorations was found about a century ago, with other papers belonging to the diary of Samuel Pepys, a gentleman of King Charles' Court. How Pepys got Radisson's journal no one knows. Possibly the King gave it to him to read and he kept it. A London shopkeeper had bought the paper and was using it for wrapping-paper when someone discovered that these sheets were diaries for which historians had been searching for years. A scholar, named Rawlinson, bought what remained of the papers and gave them for safe-keeping to a library at Oxford.

Many people have read Radisson's journal and have tried to find out exactly where the party went. It is hard to tell, because, of course, the rivers and lakes on which they travelled did not have the names they have now. Moreover, Radisson did not write his story of the journey until many years after it had taken place. It is quite probable that he had forgotten some of the details. Most of the scholars who have read Radisson's story believe that the partners went up the Ottawa River, across to Lake Huron, into Lake Michigan, out into the country which lies west of Lake Michigan, north again to Lake Superior, and along its shores. There they heard from the Indians about the "Salt Water", which was several days' journey north of Lake Superior. To-day we know that this "Salt Water" was James Bay.

THEIR VENTURE IS SUCCESSFUL

The animals that live in the cold north have longer, thicker fur than the animals of the south. The furs which Radisson and Groseilliers obtained around Lake Superior were of high quality. They returned to New France with a very valuable cargo of fine furs.

THE GOVERNOR WANTS TO SHARE THE PROFITS

This expedition was so successful that these two adventurous Frenchmen wanted to make another trip. They asked the governor of New France for permission to go among the western Indians again to trade for furs. The governor, aware that they had made a lot of money from their earlier trip, thought that he might make them share the profits of this venture with him. He suggested that he would send two men with them. This made Radisson and Groseilliers very angry. One night they stole away without the governor's permission.

Again the partners went up the Ottawa, across Lake Huron, and into Lake Superior, and north of Lake Superior to Lake Nipigon. Some historians believe that they made their way to the "Salt Water" of James Bay. Certainly these French adventurers learned about the Bay, either by visiting it or from the Indians.

Once more Radisson and Groseilliers brought back a great cargo of valuable furs. They thought they had made a fortune. But the governor seized their furs and kept most of them.



Radisson and Groseilliers seek the patronage of Charles II

THEY LOOK FOR SOMEONE TO FINANCE ANOTHER EXPEDITION

Radisson and Groseilliers were furious. They went to Paris to obtain justice but they found no help there. Then they outfitted an expedition to go by sea to Hudson Bay, but they were driven back by the ice. They went to Boston, hoping for support from some of the merchants there for the project. In Boston, they met Colonel George Cartwright who became interested in their story and undertook to interest the King of England in the venture. Radisson and Groseilliers did not care whether they worked with the English or with the French. They wanted to make profits out of the fur trade.

Colonel Cartwright persuaded Charles II to listen to the accounts of these two coureurs de bois who had penetrated into the heart of North America. Charles, who was always in need of money, was interested in any venture which promised rich returns, but at that time he was too busy to arrange for an expedition. The two Frenchmen waited impatiently, eager to get back to the business of trading for furs. At last Prince Rupert, a cousin of King Charles, persuaded several gentlemen of the court to join him in outfitting an expedition.

In the spring of 1668 two ships set out, with Radisson in command of the *Eaglet*, Groseilliers of the *Nonsuch*.

The traders were told to trade for furs, to search for valuable minerals, such as gold, silver, and copper, and to try to find the North-West Passage to Asia. Every fur-trading party that went out to the north or to the west hoped to find it, or to find out something about it.

Radisson had bad luck on his first expedition from England. There was a great storm at sea, and the *Eaglet* was so badly damaged that he had to turn back to England. Meanwhile Groseilliers and his men on board the *Nonsuch* reached James Bay safely. At the mouth of a river which they named the Rupert after their patron, Prince Rupert, they built a small fort which they called Fort Charles in honour of Charles II of England. Fort Charles later was called Rupert's House.

It was very cold on the shores of the great bay. The Englishmen were not used to such cold weather. "All the world seemed frozen into death," declared the captain.

The Indians had plenty of beaver skins, and they were willing to trade. They wanted the hatchets, the knives, and the brass kettles which the white men had brought. Above all, they wanted the guns, the powder, and the shot. They said, "The true means to get victory is to have a thunder." "Thunder" was the word they used to describe the white man's gun.

In the summer the *Nonsuch* returned to England with a rich cargo of beaver skins.

The ***Nonsuch*** flies the British flag in James Bay

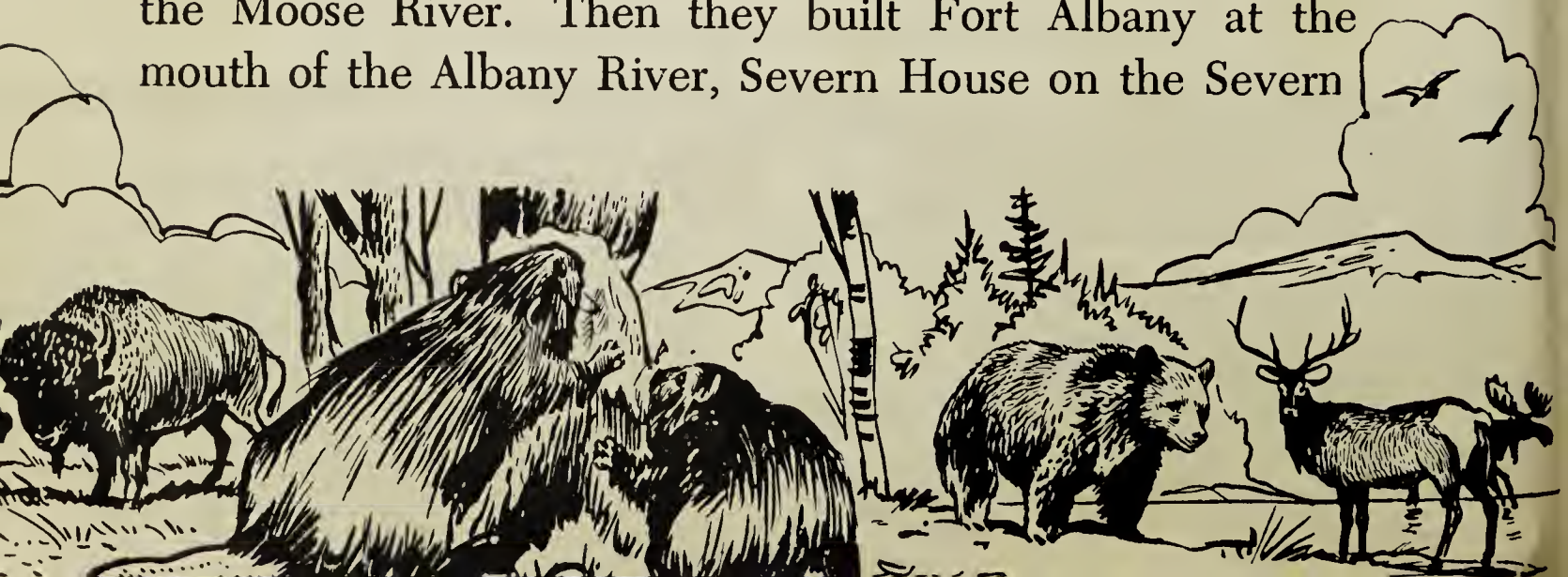


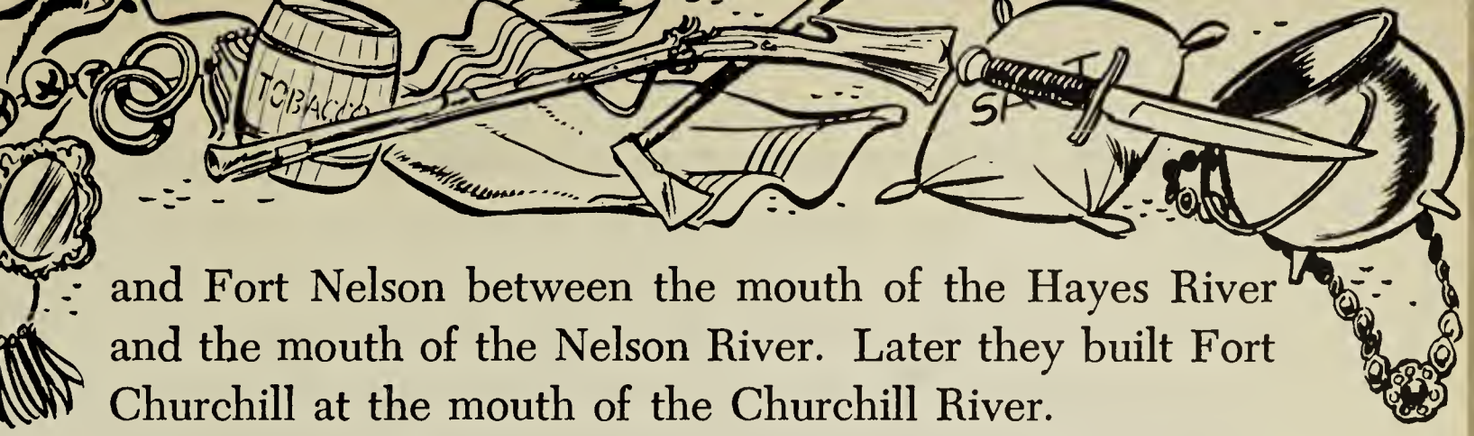
Prince Rupert and his friends were delighted with the results of this trial voyage. They promptly applied to the King for a charter for their company. On May 2nd, 1670, a charter was granted to the Governor and Company of Adventurers Trading into Hudson's Bay. That is the formal title of the company we know as the Hudson's Bay Company.

This charter gave the Hudson's Bay Company very great power, probably more than either the King or the Company realized at the time. It gave it full control of the fur trade with the Indians in all the country drained by all the rivers that flow into Hudson Bay. That is a very large part of Canada. It takes in the north-western part of Quebec, a large part of northern Ontario, all of Manitoba, most of Saskatchewan, and about half of Alberta and the North West Territories.

The charter also gave the Hudson's Bay Company control of the fisheries, and of all the minerals, gold, silver, and copper found in that country. The company was also given the right to make laws, not only for its own servants, but for all the inhabitants of this great area under their control.

The Hudson's Bay Company soon found that it would be profitable to have several trading-posts. All travelling in that country was by canoe on the rivers. Therefore the traders built their posts at the mouths of rivers and sent word to the Indians to bring their furs down to the posts. They built a post called Moose Factory at the mouth of the Moose River. Then they built Fort Albany at the mouth of the Albany River, Severn House on the Severn





and Fort Nelson between the mouth of the Hayes River and the mouth of the Nelson River. Later they built Fort Churchill at the mouth of the Churchill River.

The French were not willing that a British company should control this great area and this profitable trade with the Indians. It must have made the French very angry when they remembered that if it had not been for the greedy governor, this territory and its trade might have been theirs.

Le Moyne d'Iberville made valiant attempts to take the posts on the Bay for France, but in vain. Since 1713, when France agreed to recognize Britain's claim to Hudson Bay, no country has threatened British supremacy there.

15. The Unlucky Seignior of China

"An eye of power, a knightly heart,
A patient purpose silence-nursed."
THOMAS D'ARCY MCGEE: *The Launch of the Griffin*

One of the suburbs of the city of Montreal to-day is the town of Lachine. The name Lachine is the French equivalent for "China". The story of how such a strange name attached itself to this town has a good deal of interest for readers of Canadian history.

LA SALLE DREAMS OF DISCOVERING THE ROUTE TO CHINA

In 1667 the land on which Lachine now stands was granted to a young man from Normandy, named René Robert Cavelier, Sieur de la Salle. La Salle had been a friend of Talon in France. In 1667 he followed his friend

to Canada, hoping to carve out for himself a career in the New World. For two or three years he lived on his seigniory, trading with the Indians, but it was not long before he became discontented with the uneventful life of a fur-trader. He wanted to win fame and glory. He dreamed of discovering the western passage to China. It may be that he had heard from the Indians the story of rivers that led to a Western Sea. It may be that his nature was too bold, too restless, too ambitious to let him be content on his quiet seigniory.

When he heard that two missionaries were setting out for the west in 1669 to found missions there, he arranged to go with them. Even the missionaries seem to have regarded him as a dreamer. People seemed to be amused at his idea of trying to find a route to China. In their amusement they named his seigniory "Lachine". It was, they doubtless said among themselves, the only China he would ever see.



HIS ACHIEVEMENTS WERE MANY BUT HE DID NOT FIND A ROUTE TO CHINA

They were right. Neither in 1669 nor later did La Salle discover the route to China. But in the remaining years of his short life he did several things almost as important. He travelled farther into the interior of North America than any white man before his time. He founded a fur-trading post, Fort Cataraqui, on the site of the present city of Kingston. He explored part of the Ohio River. He was the first man to build and launch a sailing vessel on Lake Erie. He was the first white man to explore the Mississippi to its mouth, and he led the way for those who later founded the French colony of Louisiana.

HE EXPLORED THE MISSISSIPPI TO ITS MOUTH

La Salle's greatest achievement was his exploration of the Mississippi. He was not, it is true, the first white man to reach the waters of the Mississippi. Ten years before his expedition a Canadian fur-trader named Louis Joliet, with the Jesuit father, Marquette, had discovered the Mississippi and had paddled down it as far as the mouth of the Arkansas River. But La Salle was the first to follow "the Father of Waters" to its mouth, and the first to plant the French flag on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico.

He struggled for many years before he achieved his ambition of following the mighty river to its mouth. He had to go to France to obtain the King's permission for his venture. Then he had to spend a year at Fort Cataraqui on Lake Ontario making preparations for his expedition.

It was not until 1679 that he was able to set out. As lieutenant he had a brave Italian officer, the Chevalier de

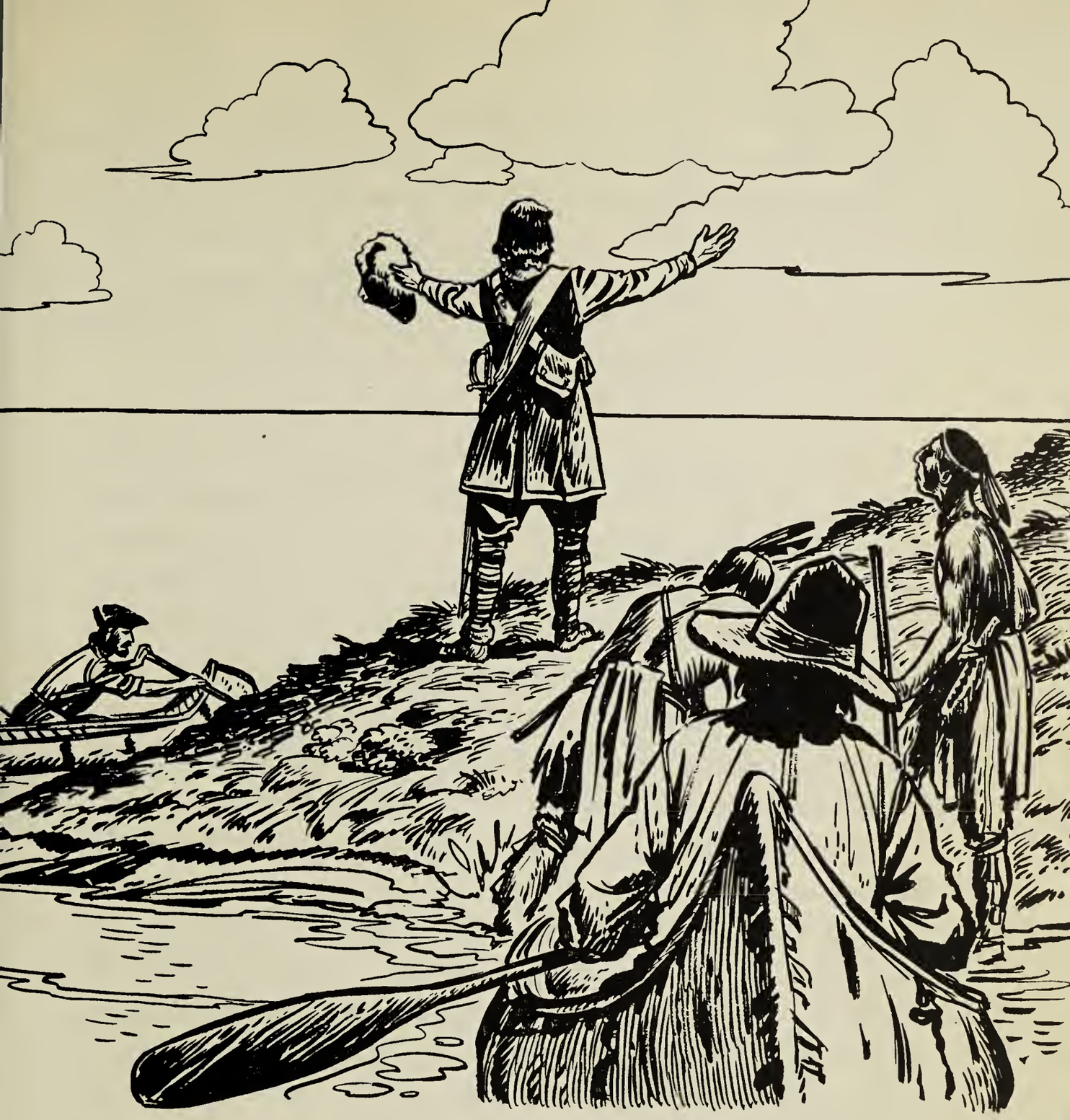
Tonti, known as Tonti of the Iron Hand, because one of his hands was a steel claw. With them they had two priests and a number of canoe-men and coureurs de bois. The party reached the Illinois River the first winter.

Various misfortunes delayed them, and it was not until the spring of 1682 that he and his men reached the junction of the Illinois and the Mississippi. They followed the winding course of the great Mississippi until, on April 9, they came at last to the salt water of the Gulf of Mexico.

HE DREAMED OF A GREAT FRENCH EMPIRE ON THE GULF OF MEXICO

La Salle was clever enough to realize the importance of what he had done. He saw that by his journey he had drawn a net about the English colonies on the Atlantic seaboard. If the French could keep this vast area which he had crossed, they would be able to hem the English in to a narrow strip along the Atlantic coast. Perhaps the French would be strong enough some day to drive their rivals into the sea. New France would no longer be a small colony on the banks of the St. Lawrence. It would become a great empire stretching from the Gulf of the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico, the ruling power in the new continent.

The first thing to be done was to make sure that France had possession of the land around the mouth of the Mississippi. La Salle hurried back to Quebec and took a ship for France with the greatest possible speed. There he persuaded the minister in charge of colonial affairs to outfit an expedition to found a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi. In the spring of 1684 the expedition set out. Four vessels carried two hundred and eighty colonists to claim this new empire for France.



La Salle, at the mouth of the Mississippi River, sees the Gulf of Mexico

FORTUNE DID NOT FAVOUR HIS ENTERPRISES

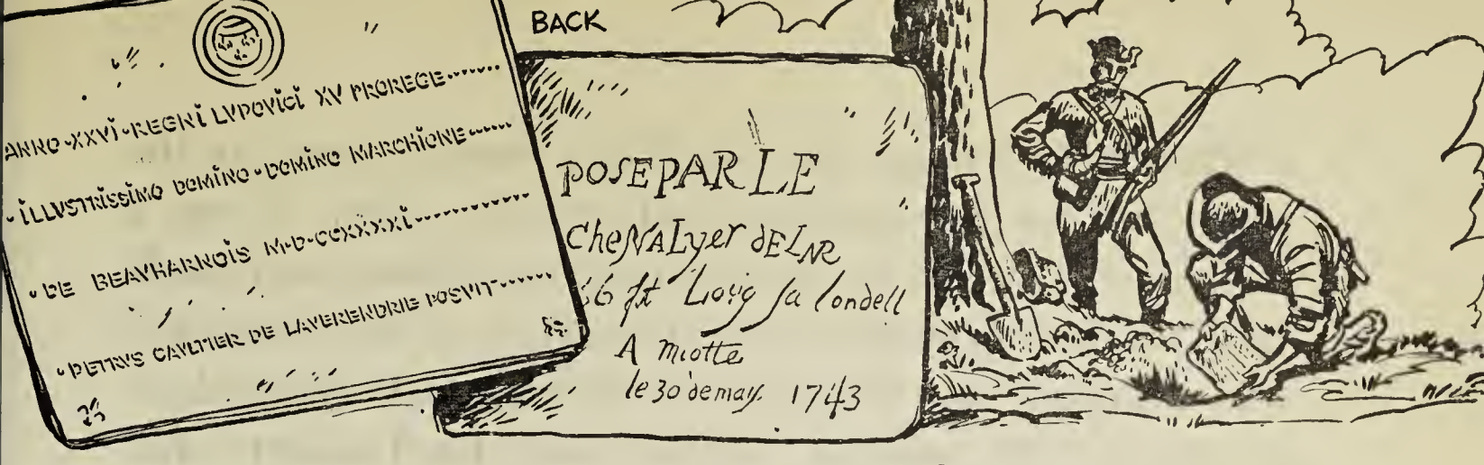
Few men have ever been as unlucky as La Salle. He had no skill in making his followers loyal to him. His men were frequently in a state of mutiny against him. His creditors seized his goods when he was away on an expedition and he had to postpone his exploration to go

home and straighten out his affairs. He had more than a normal number of shipwrecks in which all the furs which he had obtained from the Indians were lost or ruined. He often fell ill just when he most needed to be strong and able to meet difficulties. Seldom has any explorer encountered so many misfortunes. Yet no obstacle but death was powerful enough to stop him.

It must have seemed that good fortune was with him when he succeeded in winning the support of the minister of France and set out with four ships and two hundred and eighty men. But no—by ill luck he missed the entrance to the Mississippi and, sailing past it, landed on what is now the coast of Texas. Here his supply ship went to pieces on a reef, and nearly everything on board was lost. The other ships, once they landed their passengers, returned to France. The unfortunate La Salle was left with his colonists on an unknown and desolate shore.

He tried to find the mouth of the Mississippi, but without success. For two years the colony managed to survive, though every day conditions became more difficult. At last, early in 1687, La Salle decided to make an effort to reach the Illinois country. He had gone only a short distance when mutiny broke out. The unfortunate explorer was murdered by one of his own men.

A few survivors of the party reached the junction of the Mississippi and the Arkansas, where La Salle's lieutenant, Tonti, was patiently waiting for them. A few years later a French colony, Louisiana, was established at the mouth of the Mississippi. But La Salle had no part in these achievements. His body lay on the Texas prairie. He had died an inglorious death, in the midst of failure and disappointment, but he had blazed a trail where others followed. Louisiana was his memorial.



In 1743 François La Vérendrye buries the plate found earlier in this century in South Dakota

16. The Shining Mountains

"There are worlds beyond, there are worlds beyond,
Worlds to be conquered, worlds to be found
By river and desert and burning ground
Even, perchance, by the Ocean-Sea
If a man has courage enough to dare.
And I know that others will follow me
And I mark the road that will take them there."

STEPHEN VINCENT BENÉT: *The Ballad of Marco Polo*

HATTIE FOSTER'S DISCOVERY

One Sunday in February, 1913, some children were playing on a hill near Pierre, South Dakota. A little girl, named Hattie Foster, stumbled on a small oblong plate of lead on which there was some strange writing and a strange picture. When scholars examined it they discovered on one side the coat of arms of the King of France and a Latin inscription. On the other side, obviously scratched by a knife point, was an inscription in French which may be translated as follows:

PLACED HERE BY THE
CHEVALIER DE LA VÉRENDRYE
WITNESSES, LOUIS, LA LONDETTE,
AMIOTTE.
MARCH 30TH, 1743.

This little leaden plate had lain buried there in the sandy hill for one hundred and seventy years. It was a memorial of one of the most daring expeditions ever made by Canadian explorers. The Chevalier de la Vérendrye was François, the third son of Pierre de la Vérendrye. Louis was his younger brother, and La Londette and Amiotte were the two voyageurs who had made the expedition with them.

A DISTINGUISHED FAMILY OF EXPLORERS

The La Vérendrye family set a proud record in exploration. Pierre de la Vérendrye, with his four sons, Jean Baptiste, Pierre, François, and Louis, and his nephew, de la Jemeraye, opened the map westward over a thousand miles. They were the first white men to travel up the Pigeon River to Rainy Lake and on to the Lake of the Woods by the route later called the Grand Portage. They were the first white men to travel on the Winnipeg River, the Red, and the Assiniboine, the first to visit the country of the Mandan Indians, and the first French traders on the Saskatchewan.

PIERRE DE LA VÉRENDRYE DETERMINES TO SEEK THE WESTERN SEA

Pierre de la Vérendrye was born in Three Rivers, the son of the governor. After some years of service in the French army, he returned to Canada and entered the fur trade. In 1728, when he was in charge of a trading-post on Lake Nipigon, he heard stories from the Indians about "a mighty river flowing west" and "a vast country devoid of timber with large herds of cattle".

An old Indian named Ochagach drew for La Vérendrye a map which showed rivers emptying into the Western

Sea. In those days men believed that the Western Sea was a narrow body of water separating America from Asia. They had no idea how huge the Pacific Ocean was. Ochagach told La Vérendrye of a lake west of Lake Superior out of which a river flowed to the west. The Indian stated that he himself had paddled down this river until he came to a great water which ebbed and flowed.

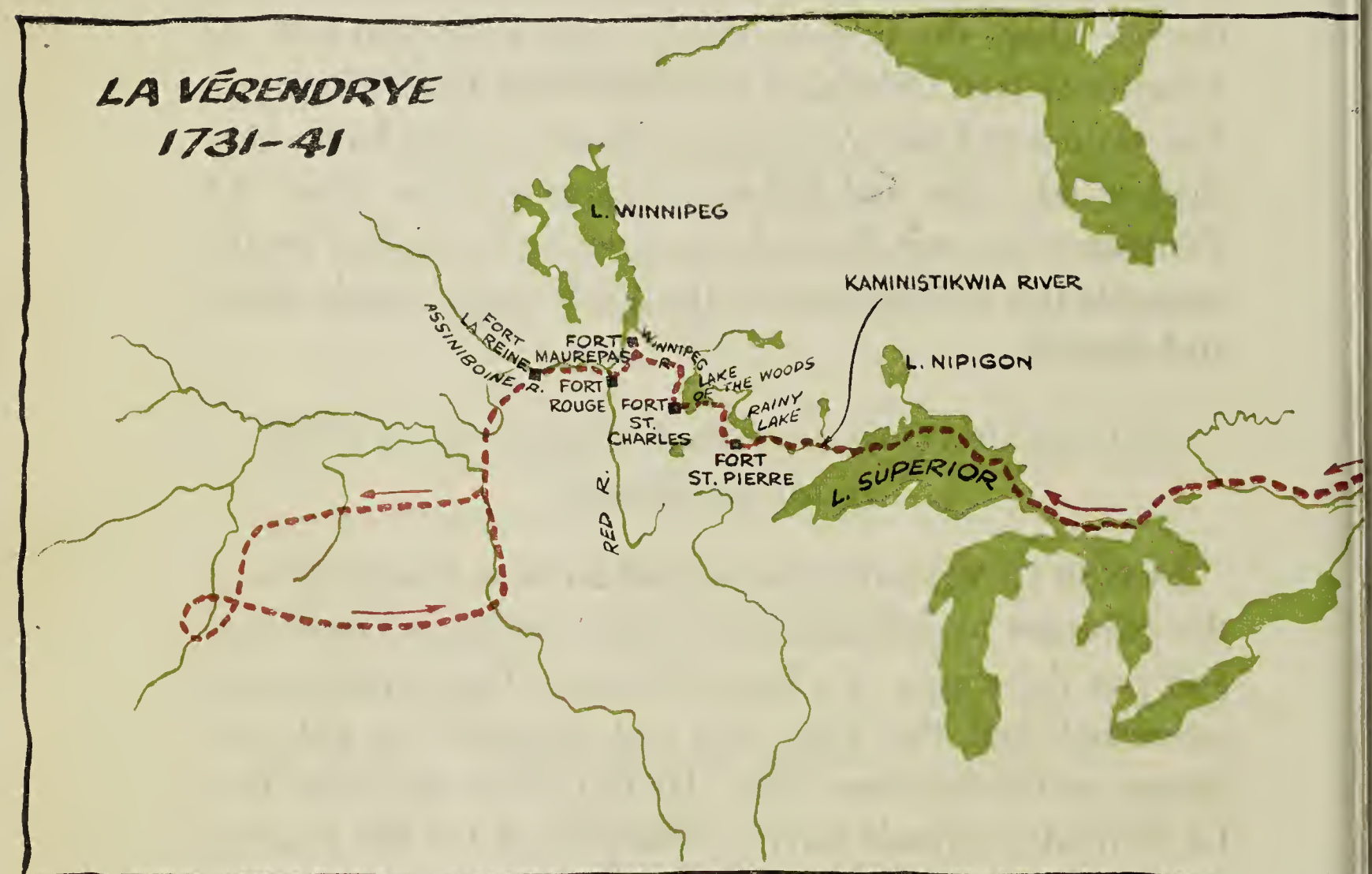
La Vérendrye thought that Ochagach must have reached the sea where the tides made the waters rise and fall. As a matter of fact, Ochagach was describing Lake Winnipeg. The waters in Lake Winnipeg, which is a very large, very shallow lake, rise and fall with changes of the wind. La Vérendrye was not the only explorer to be misled by the accounts the Indians gave of this great water which ebbed and flowed.

HE PERSUADES SOME MONTREAL MERCHANTS TO INVEST IN HIS ENTERPRISE

In 1730 La Vérendrye went back to New France to urge the governor to persuade the King to equip an expedition and pay the wages of a hundred men. The governor was interested, but the King was not prepared to risk any money on the far-away land. He did, however, agree that La Vérendrye should have a monopoly of the fur trade in the far west. La Vérendrye succeeded in persuading a few Montreal merchants to put up some money. These merchants were not in the least concerned about exploration, but they were greatly interested in profits from the fur trade.

Like La Salle, La Vérendrye dreamed of a great French Empire controlling the route to the riches of China and India, an empire in which his sons and his son's sons would be great and powerful. But La Vérendrye could be

practical, too. He realized that if the King would not give him the money for the expedition he must make it out of the fur trade. Therefore he planned to establish, west of Lake Superior, a chain of trading-posts which would handle the furs, and at the same time serve as bases for his explorations.



A CHAIN OF FORTS FROM LAKE SUPERIOR TO THE LAKE OF THE WOODS

In 1731 La Vérendrye set out. With him were his three older sons, his nephew, La Jemeraye, who was an experienced fur-trader and explorer, and a number of voyageurs, about fifty in all. By August they had reached

the north-western shore of Lake Superior, where the Kaministikwia flows into the lake, the site of the present city of Fort William.

Some of the voyageurs refused to go farther. La Jemeraye persuaded a few to go on as far as Rainy Lake. About two miles from the present site of Fort Frances, they built Fort St. Pierre, so named after their leader, Pierre de La Vérendrye.

In the spring La Jemeraye returned to the post at the mouth of the Kaministikwia with a cargo of good furs. La Vérendrye's men, seeing that La Jemeraye and his companions had returned safely, agreed to go on. They took a month to reach Fort St. Pierre, and after a short rest there they went on to the Lake of the Woods. There they built Fort St. Charles.

Jean Baptiste, La Vérendrye's eldest son, pushed on to the mouth of the Winnipeg River, where he built a fort which he called Fort Maurepas. By now, the party had built a chain of forts from Lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods. But La Vérendrye could not make enough money out of the fur trade to pay the costs of the expedition. In vain he begged for help from the King. He painted for the merchants a glowing picture of the profitable trade which the French could take from the Hudson's Bay Company, and persuaded them to risk the funds for another expedition.

DISASTERS

Bad news was waiting when he rejoined his party. La Jemeraye, the most experienced and most valuable member of his party, had died. Jean Baptiste had been massacred by the Indians while he was returning with his voyageurs to Fort St. Charles.

PIERRE AND FRANÇOIS ON THE RED AND THE ASSINIBOINE

While their father was in the east, Pierre and François had explored the country around the mouth of the Winnipeg River and around the mouth of the Red River. They had paddled up the Red to the Assiniboine River and up the Assiniboine to where Portage la Prairie now stands. There they established a fort which they called Fort La Reine in honour of the Queen of France. La Vérendrye decided to make this fort his headquarters. Some of the men went back to the forks of the Red and the Assiniboine and there, where the city of Winnipeg now stands, they built Fort Rouge.

THE VISIT TO THE MANDANS

Indians visiting Fort La Reine told La Vérendrye about a tribe called the Mandans, who lived south-west of the fort. From the description, La Vérendrye thought that these Mandans must be white men.

In October, 1738, he set out into the Mandan country. With him he took his sons, Pierre and François, twenty of his best men, and a group of Assiniboine Indians. He could not persuade the Indians to travel quickly and directly to the villages of the Mandans. They insisted on stopping to visit and even on going some miles out of the way to call on their friends. One whole village decided to join the expedition. La Vérendrye was not pleased about having such a large party but there was nothing he could do about it.

He found the Mandan Indians more advanced than any other tribes he had met on the plains. They had better homes, better weapons and equipment, and seemed more intelligent than most of the tribes. But they were not

white men, and none of them had seen the Western Sea he sought.

A very embarrassing situation arose. The bag of presents La Vérendrye had brought with him disappeared. The Assiniboine Indians said the Mandans had taken it and the Mandans said that the Assiniboines were the thieves. This incident caused trouble later on.

The Mandans were very polite to the explorer and his party, but they began to find it rather expensive providing for so many guests. La Vérendrye's uninvited Assiniboine escorts numbered about six hundred. It would not have been courteous for the hosts to ask their guests to leave but they thought of a way out of their difficulty. They started a rumour that the Sioux were on the war-path. The Assiniboines feared this tribe, and, as soon as they heard the Sioux were near, they departed for home as fast as they could. Unfortunately, the Assiniboine interpreter fled with the others and after that the Frenchman and the Mandans could communicate only by sign language.

La Vérendrye decided to leave two men in the Mandan village to learn the language, and with the rest of the party he started back across the frozen prairie to Fort La Reine. Before he left he thanked the Mandans for their hospitality, gave them what gifts he and his men could spare from their equipment, and claimed the land for the King of France.

La Vérendrye and his party stay for some time with the Mandans, a tribe of Indians on the Prairies





FRANÇOIS AND LOUIS SET OUT FOR THE SHINING MOUNTAINS

Next spring the two men who spent the winter with the Mandans returned to Fort La Reine. They told of tribes that lived westward near the "Shining Mountains", of tribes that traded with bearded men who lived away to the west by the waters which were not fit to drink. Because La Vérendrye was himself too ill to undertake a long journey, he entrusted the expedition to his sons. In the spring of 1742, his sons François and Louis, with two voyageurs, set out to find the Shining Mountains and the Western Sea.

The adventurers went to the Mandan villages on the Missouri, and from there they made their way westward until on New Year's Day, 1743, they came in sight of what the Indians called the Shining Mountains. Whether these were the Rocky Mountains or some hills east of the Rockies, scholars are not yet agreed. Many historians who have studied their journals maintain that François and Louis reached the foothills of the Rockies. If so, they were the first white men in the northern part of North America to behold them.

They did not, it is true, reach the Western Sea. Hostile Indians barred their way. François wrote in his journal, "I was exceedingly disappointed not to be able to ascend the mountains as I had intended." He also wrote in his journal that on their return journey they built a cairn and placed in it a leaden plate claiming the lands for the King of France. It was that leaden plate which little Hattie Foster found a hundred and seventy years later.

In July François and Louis returned to Fort La Reine to tell the story of their travels.

THE LA VÉRENDRYES HAVE TO GIVE UP THEIR EXPLORATIONS

La Vérendrye's troubles were not over. The fur trade had not paid the costs of his expeditions. The southern country in which he had built his posts was not as rich in furs as the northern plains. He begged for more help from the governor, from the King, from the merchants of Montreal. No help came.

Later, in 1749, the King gave a decoration, the Cross of St. Louis, to La Vérendrye, in recognition of the great work he had done, and authorized another expedition. With high hopes La Vérendrye prepared to set out again the following spring. But death came to the gallant explorer before the ice was gone from the rivers.

La Vérendrye and his sons received no fitting reward for their work in their lifetime, but they are honoured by Canadians as the men who opened up the overland route to the fur trade of the west. Thanks to their explorations the French found a way to the rich fur trade of the plains.

It was not long after the death of La Vérendrye that New France passed into the hands of the British. The North West Company trading from Montreal followed the

routes opened by the courageous French family of explorers. To-day on the bank of the Red River, in the city of St. Boniface, there stands a noble monument to the memory of Pierre de la Vérendrye and his sons.



Girls and boys of Winnipeg often visit the La Vérendrye monument in St. Boniface

For Further Study

1. Why was the beaver chosen as the emblem of Canada?
2. Louisiana was La Salle's memorial. It belonged to France for many years. Now it is part of the United States. When did France give up this territory?
3. Make a mural depicting the adventures of La Salle.
4. Have you ever seen the coat of arms of the Hudson's Bay Company? What does the motto "Pro pelle cutem" mean?
5. In the early days the trade of the Hudson's Bay Company was estimated in terms of beaver pelts. In exchange for one beaver pelt an Indian could get eight knives, or two hatchets, or twelve needles, or half a pound of thread, or one shirt, or twenty fishhooks, or four spoons, or a brass kettle. For a blanket he paid six beavers; for a rifle, eight. Prepare

a display card to show the Indians what the white man's goods would cost them. (For more prices see *The Honourable Company* by Douglas MacKay, pp. 85-86.)

6. Make a list of the animals whose pelts the Hudson's Bay Company bought from the Indians.

7. To-day quantities of grain are shipped from western Canada to Europe from Churchill by way of Hudson Bay. Why are the insurance rates high on these cargoes?

8. Look at the map of La Vérendrye's forts. Draw a map of the same area and put in the names of the cities and towns which have grown up on the sites of La Vérendrye's forts.

9. Prepare a speech such as La Vérendrye might have made to the merchants of Montreal when he was trying to persuade them to supply more money for his expeditions. He would tell them what he had done and what he hoped to do.

10. Add the *Griffin* and the *Nonsuch* to your Book of Ships.

11. The 1951 ten-cent stamp recognizes the importance of the fur trade in Canada. Add one to your collection.



IV. *The Fight for North America*

17. The French and the British Struggle for Control of the New Land

"Were these not brave old races?—
Well, here they still abide;
And yours is one or other,
And the second's at your side."
W. D. LIGHTHALL: *The Battle of La Prairie*

Since North America is a very large continent, we might think that there was room in it for the handful of French settlers living on the banks of the St. Lawrence and for the few thousand British settlers along the Atlantic coast. But not so. Over and over again they made war on each other. Whenever there was war between Britain and France in Europe, there was war between the British and French in America, too. Moreover, the colonies did not always wait for the Mother Countries to declare war upon each other. Sometimes the fighting began in America before it began in Europe. Both French and English wanted to control the fur trade. Each wanted to drive the other from the continent.

The two nations struggled for the possession of Acadia and Newfoundland. They fought for the control of Hudson Bay, and for the control of the Ohio Valley—both areas in which there was a rich trade in furs. With their Indian allies they tried to destroy each other's settlements. Lake Champlain and the Richelieu River made a natural war-path by which they travelled to raid the towns and

villages of their foe. British ships came by sea to storm the French strongholds in Acadia and on the St. Lawrence. French ships carried attacking parties to Newfoundland and the forts on Hudson Bay.

Champlain's choice of Quebec was a wise one. His experience as a soldier made him careful to select a site which could be easily defended from enemy attack. Since the river narrows at this point, no ship could approach without being seen from the fort if careful watch was kept. Although the settlement was on a slope near the water's edge, the fort was on a high rocky cliff. It was a splendid situation for a fort. A small garrison could defend it against a large attacking force as long as the defenders had enough food and ammunition.

The first capture of Quebec was in 1629 when Champlain's starving garrison was forced to surrender to David Kirke. Although the English made several attempts to take it, Quebec did not surrender again until one hundred and thirty years later when Wolfe landed his forces above the fortress and met the French troops on the Plains of Abraham.

The Iroquois massacre the settlers at Lachine and thus begin the war between the French and New Englanders



Sixty years after Champlain surrendered to Kirke, serious trouble arose again between the French and the British in America. The British fur-traders and their Indian allies, the Iroquois, were threatening the French fur trade. A savage attack was made on Lachine in the dead of the night by the Iroquois and all the inhabitants were scalped or taken prisoner. Frontenac, the governor of New France, decided that he should strike a blow at the British and at their allies, the Iroquois, in order to protect the French settlers and the fur trade. For many years Britain and France had been at peace in Europe but now they were less friendly. This gave Frontenac a good excuse for attacking the British in America.

He decided that he would send three war-parties against three settlements in the New England colonies. One went from Quebec, one from Three Rivers, one from Montreal. Without warning, these Frenchmen and their Indian allies swooped down upon the quiet New England villages. Suddenly the air was filled with the blood-curdling war-whoops of the Indians. Men, women, and children were massacred and scalped by the Indians.

Frontenac hoped that he had taught the British that the French were powerful and well able to protect their fur trade. But the New Englanders, determined to avenge these cruel massacres, made plans to attack the French by land and by sea. The land attack was a dismal failure, but the naval attack was more successful. Led by Sir William Phips, a force of New Englanders captured Port Royal, the French stronghold in Acadia, and destroyed the Acadian settlements. They burned the buildings and forced the settlers to flee into the forests.

At Quebec Sir William Phips was less successful. It had taken him over two months to sail from Boston to Quebec. When at last the fleet lay before Quebec, Sir William sent a messenger demanding that Frontenac surrender.

The haughty French governor replied, "I will answer your general only by the mouths of my cannon that he may learn that a man like me is not to be summoned after this fashion. Let him do his best and I will do mine."

The New Englanders soon found that they could not capture Quebec. While the inhabitants stood laughing and jeering on the ramparts, Sir William Phips and his thirty-four ships sailed away.

Frontenac then commissioned Le Moyne d'Iberville to raid the English fishing villages in Newfoundland. A few years before this time, King Charles II of England had given the French permission to fish along a certain part of the coast of Newfoundland. A French governor and soldiers came to Placentia Bay to protect their fishermen, and the French began to make raids on the English villages. The English had neither forts nor soldiers, but when d'Iberville was advancing towards the English headquarters at St. John's, a courageous band of fishermen tried to stop him. D'Iberville's forces outnumbered the fishermen almost five to one and forced them to give way. The English fled for shelter to the woods and small coves and, after the French had gone on their way, the survivors returned and rebuilt their homes.

Meanwhile there was a lively struggle for control of the profitable fur trade on Hudson Bay. The trading-posts which the British had established were raided again and again by the French. In 1697 when Frontenac's war ended, the treaty of peace left all the posts but Fort Nelson in the hands of the French.

WAR AGAIN

This peace did not last long. Five years later Britain and France were at war again in Europe and the colonists were sending raids against each other. Port Royal had been returned to the French and had become once more headquarters for privateers who sailed out to attack British ships. The New Englanders, angry that Port Royal had been given back to France after Sir William Phips had captured it, begged Queen Anne to send them help to take it once and for all. The Queen promised ships and soldiers and in 1710 Colonel Nicholson led the British in another attack on the French at Port Royal. After brief resistance the French governor surrendered when the English began to shell the town. The British renamed the place Annapolis after Queen Anne, and, from that day to this, Acadia, now called Nova Scotia, has remained in British hands.

Not content with taking Port Royal and Acadia, Nicholson and his men started up the St. Lawrence with the intention of seizing Quebec and putting French rule in America to an end. Their ships were wrecked in the St. Lawrence and Quebec remained safe.

When peace was made in 1713 France gave up all claims to Hudson Bay and Newfoundland, as well as to Acadia. French fishermen were allowed to land on the shores of Newfoundland to dry their fish and spread out their nets. France also kept Cape Breton Island.

LOUISBOURG

Cape Breton Island turned out to be of great value to the French. On it they built one of the most famous fortresses in the history of North America. Port Royal, the French stronghold in Acadia, had been a serious threat to the New Englanders until it was surrendered to the British

along with all Acadia in 1713. The British rejoiced that they no longer need fear the power of the enemy in that area. However, the French were not giving up the struggle in America. They had lost Port Royal but they still had Cape Breton Island. There on a magnificent harbour they built a strong fortress which they called Louisbourg in honour of the King of France. The fortifications, planned by one of France's greatest engineers, cost so much that King Louis asked if the streets were paved with gold. Just as Quebec controlled the Upper St. Lawrence, Louisbourg controlled the entrance to the St. Lawrence. To take New France, Britain would have to take these two strong fortresses.

When war broke out again in 1744, Louisbourg became the headquarters of French pirates who attacked the New England fishing-boats and trading-ships. In one summer twenty-five ships from Boston were captured by these pirates. It was not long before the New Englanders realized that Louisbourg was a greater danger to them than Port Royal had ever been.

A party from New England undertook to attack this great stronghold. Clerks, farmers, and fishermen, led by a merchant, set forth on the expedition. These men had little military training or experience. Their plans had not been made carefully; their equipment was poor. They made foolish mistakes. For example, they took a supply of cannon-balls but no cannon from which to fire them.

However, they had great good luck. First, they had good weather and reached Louisbourg without difficulty or delay. Then they found that the French made mistakes, too. When the French were driven back, they abandoned some of their cannons in such a hurry that they did not take time to smash them. Soon British cannon-balls, fired



New Englanders set out with high hopes, but little preparation, to attack Louisbourg

from French guns, began to fall upon the French fortress.

The British had still more good luck. Their own supplies of food and ammunition were running low when they sighted a French ship approaching the harbour. They succeeded in capturing it, and found it filled with the supplies of food and ammunition they needed to continue the attack.

In June, 1745, the great fortress surrendered to the men of New England.

But the capture of Louisbourg was only one battle in the great war between the French and the British which was being fought not only in America but also in Europe and in Asia. When the peace was made, Louisbourg was given back to France. You can imagine how furious the New England colonists were when they learned that the great fortress they had succeeded in taking had been returned.

18. The Final Conflict

"Montcalm and Wolfe! Wolfe and Montcalm!
Quebec, thy storied citadel
Attests in burning song and psalm
How here thy heroes fell!"

CHARLES G. D. ROBERTS: *Canada*

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR

The rivalry between France and Britain was now so great that it was clear there was not room in North America for two such ambitious nations. The French dreamed of a great empire in America. They wanted to link their colony on the St. Lawrence with their possessions at the mouth of the Mississippi. If they had succeeded, they would have restricted the British to a narrow strip along the Atlantic. The British were determined not to allow this. They wanted the western country, too.

The Seven Years' War was part of another great war between France and Britain. Again the two nations were fighting in Europe and in Asia as well as in America. This war ended in victory for the British, but during the fighting it would have been hard to predict which nation would win.

There were many more British colonists in America than there were French, but the British were divided into thirteen separate colonies. Each colony had its own governor and assembly. Since each made its own laws, decided what taxes it should collect and how the money should be spent, it took these colonies a long time to learn to work together. There were fewer French, but they were united and well-organized under one government. The French had on their side many coureurs de bois who were experienced in forest fighting. Moreover, they could count

on more support from their Indian allies than the British could.

The French posts were scattered over such a very wide territory that it was difficult to get soldiers and supplies to them in time of war. The British had less difficulty in maintaining their supply lines because their settlements were less scattered. The British had seaports which were open all year round, where reinforcements and supplies from England could be landed. The French seaports were open only about six months in the year. When there was ice in the St. Lawrence, no help could come from France to the little colony.

Before we read further about this war, let us look at the map. There were four areas in America in which the French and British fought. They fought in the Ohio Valley. They fought on Lake Champlain. They fought in Acadia. Finally the British carried the war into the heart of the French colony at Quebec.

THE OHIO VALLEY

As the settlements spread inland from the Atlantic Ocean, the British moved farther and farther west. When they moved west of the Allegheny Mountains, they came in conflict with French fur-traders and their Indian allies. The French fur-traders were determined to control the Ohio Valley. They were building a line of forts to link their settlements on the St. Lawrence with those at the mouth of the Mississippi.

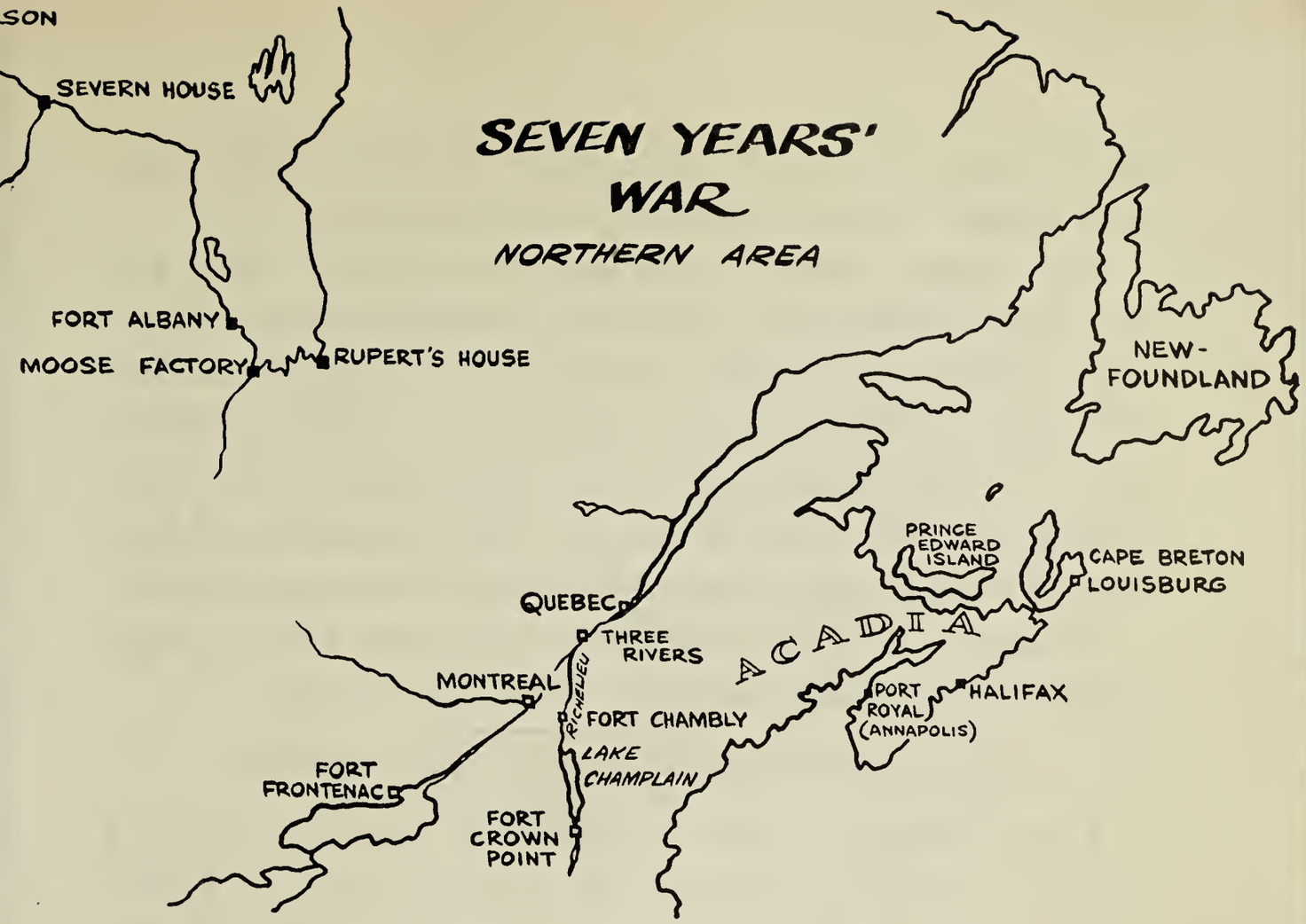
The British did not like these French posts cutting them off from the western fur trade. They began to build a fort at the forks of the Ohio where Pittsburgh now stands. The French seized the fort and finished building it, naming it Fort Duquesne. The Virginians sent George Washing-



ton, then a young man of twenty-one, to protest to the French at Fort Duquesne. Washington informed the French fur-traders that they were in territory "known to be the property of the Crown of Great Britain". The commander refused to give up his fort.

"My countryman, Robert La Salle, discovered this land nearly a hundred years ago," he declared. "It belongs to France. The whole valley of the Ohio belongs to France. We will keep this fort and we will build others. We will hold the Ohio for our people. And we warn the English to keep out. Tell that to your governor."

In 1755, a force made up of volunteers from the colonies and British regular troops marched against Fort Duquesne. General Braddock was in command. He was an experienced soldier, but his experience had been gained in Europe where methods of warfare were different from



those of the Indians. European armies dressed in bright colours and marched out to meet each other with drums beating and flags waving. Indian fighting was very different; it was like modern guerrilla fighting. The Indians took advantage of every bit of cover they could find. They dressed so that it was hard for the enemy to see them against the ground or among trees.

George Washington, who was with Braddock, tried to warn him about Indian warfare. But Braddock was a veteran of many European battles and thought he knew more about fighting than any young colonist. As Braddock and his men came near the fort, the woods suddenly became alive with foes. Indians hidden behind trees shot at the red-coated soldiers. Bravely the redcoats marched forward against an enemy they could not see. Gaps came in the ranks as the Indian bullets found their marks, and soldiers moved up to fill the places of their fallen comrades.

Five horses were shot from under Braddock before he was killed. The few survivors had to retreat.

The British soldiers were very courageous. They lost this battle because they did not understand their enemy's kind of fighting. To-day it seems very strange to us that a general should neglect to send scouts in advance of his army. It seems strange that an army should beat drums which warn the enemy it is approaching, and that soldiers should wear bright colours which make them easy targets.

Braddock had been defeated, and the French kept control of the Ohio Valley for a few years more.

LAKE CHAMPLAIN—RICHELIEU RIVER DISTRICT

Lake Champlain and the Richelieu River provided a natural war-path between the French and the British settlements. It became the second battle area of the Seven Years' War. Both sides began to build forts along this route in order to protect their settlements from attack.

The French built a fort at Chambly. The British settlers resented this, but they were unable to agree among themselves about building a fort to stop the French. While the British colonies were arguing about where to place their fort and who should pay for it, the French came farther up Lake Champlain and built Crown Point.

Now the British, realizing how strong the French were becoming, sent an army into this territory. They tried to take Crown Point but they failed. The best they could do was to build Fort William Henry to stop the French from coming closer to their settlements.

ACADIA

The third battle area was in Acadia, as Nova Scotia was then called. Both the British and the French began to prepare for the struggle there. In 1749 the British, real-

izing the need for a strong fort to oppose the French stronghold at Louisbourg, built a fort at Halifax, where there is an excellent harbour.

When the British had gained Acadia in 1713, they had let the French settlers remain on their farms. Few British settlers had come into Acadia until after Halifax was built. The French hoped to get Acadia back again. French priests, who travelled back and forth from Acadia to Canada, encouraged the farmers to hope that the land would once more belong to France.

When Governor Lawrence demanded that the settlers take an oath of allegiance to Britain, they did not obey his command. They were afraid that they might have to fight against their fellow-countrymen. They delayed, hoping and believing that their country would soon be under French control again.

Since war between France and Britain appeared to be inevitable, the governor had no choice. Either these Acadians must be loyal to Britain or they must be moved away. It was too dangerous to keep them where they could help the French when war came. The governor wrote, "Nothing now remains to be considered but what means should be taken to send them away and where they should be sent to."

The French settlers were summoned to the settlements and told that they must leave the country. Over six thousand of them were herded into ships by the British soldiers. They were allowed to take with them only what they could carry. The soldiers who were taking them to the ships did not speak or understand French. They did not always see that families were kept together. Sometimes children were separated from their parents, wives from their husbands.



The Acadians forced on board ships which will carry them far from their new homes

Imagine the grief and sorrow of these unfortunate Acadians as the ships carried them away from their beloved homes! They were not taken to the French settlements at Quebec or Cape Breton, for that would have strengthened those colonies. They were landed in small groups in different ports along the coast of the British colonies south of Boston.

Years later, after great hardships, a few of the Acadians found their way back to their old homes. Some of them joined the French settlements at the mouth of the Mississippi. Others made homes wherever they could in the British colonies.

To-day, we would call the Acadians "displaced persons". Their unhappy fate is one of the cruel tragedies of North American history.

THE TIDE TURNS IN FAVOUR OF THE BRITISH

The French were successful in the early stages of the war, but in 1758 the tide began to turn in favour of the British. The British captured Fort Frontenac (now Kingston) and seized the supplies there which were to be sent to Fort Duquesne. This meant that the French at Fort Duquesne had to abandon their fort, and give up the control of the Ohio Valley.

CAPTURE OF LOUISBOURG

While this was happening in the Ohio Valley, a British fleet was sailing out to attack Louisbourg. This time the British were well equipped for the attack. They soon took the great fortress and with it Cape Breton Island and Prince Edward Island. This was the first important British victory of this war.

THE CAPTURE OF QUEBEC

One of the heroes of the attack upon Louisbourg was General James Wolfe. The British Government, recognizing his courage and ability, chose him to lead the attack on Quebec. He had under his command 140 ships and 9,000 of the best trained men in the British army—a very powerful force for those days.

Wolfe sailed up the St. Lawrence River, and in June, 1759, he took up a position at Lévis, across the river from Quebec. The French were prepared for an attack upon Quebec. One army under General Montcalm was stationed below Quebec between the St. Charles and the Montmorency Rivers. Another, under General Bougainville, was stationed about eight miles above Quebec.

From their position at Lévis, the British fired their cannon across the wide St. Lawrence. The cannon-balls

did some damage to the town of Quebec, but the fortress was much too strong to be destroyed by the kind of cannon they had in those days.

Wolfe knew that he would have to land his troops and fight the French armies. He tried landing below the Montmorency River, but he could not get his army across the river. Then he tried landing on the shore in front of Montcalm's army, but again he was unsuccessful. June, July, and August passed, and Wolfe had not taken Quebec. He was expecting reinforcements but he watched for them in vain. The situation seemed hopeless. Winter was coming on, and Wolfe was ill. He knew that before September was over the British fleet would have to depart, for his forces could not spend the winter there unless they took Quebec and were able to get supplies.

At last Wolfe decided to risk a bold stroke. He planned to land above Quebec, and thus separate the two French armies.

But how were the British to get up the steep bank of the St. Lawrence above Quebec? Wolfe learned through his scouts that there was one spot that was not carefully guarded. From a little bay, which since that day has been known as Wolfe's Cove, a steep path led up to the plains above Quebec. In this little cove the French boats from up the river were accustomed to land supplies for the town. Wolfe learned that supplies were expected on the night of September 12th. Under cover of darkness the British seized these supply boats.

When the French on shore heard boats approaching, they were not alarmed. A sentry challenged but one of the British soldiers answered him in French. If there had been a very small French force at the top of the bank, it could have driven Wolfe's men back. Montcalm had

given orders the day before that a regiment of French soldiers should be stationed at the head of Wolfe's Cove. Unfortunately, although Montcalm was in command of the army, his orders were countermanded by the governor, the Marquis de Vaudreuil, a stupid and interfering man. The governor had said, "We shall see about that to-morrow," not realizing that to-morrow would be too late. Wolfe's men climbed the bank and overpowered the guard.

All night long the British kept quietly landing the men at Wolfe's Cove. By morning five thousand British soldiers were drawn up ready for battle on the Plains of Abraham.

The British reached the Plains of Abraham by using a little-known path



The French had avoided battle, believing they were safe, because they had more men than the British and they had plenty of supplies. So far they had been able to drive the British back when they attempted to land. They knew that the British would have to withdraw before freeze-up. But now that the British had made a landing above the town, they could cut off supplies from Quebec. The time had come for battle.

By six o'clock in the morning, some French forces appeared. It was seven o'clock before the news of the British landing reached Montcalm. By eight o'clock his men were crossing the St. Charles River. About ten o'clock the French advanced against the British. At noon Bougainville and his forces arrived. But he was too late. The French had fallen back. Wolfe's men had won a great victory. A few days later Quebec surrendered. A year later, the remnant of French forces in North America laid down their arms at Montreal and Canada passed under British rule.

Both Wolfe and Montcalm were fatally wounded in the battle on the Plains of Abraham. Captain John Knox, who was with Wolfe at Quebec, wrote an account of the battle and of the deaths of these great heroes. Of Wolfe he wrote as follows:

"They run, see how they run!" exclaimed one of the men standing near Wolfe.

"Who runs?" demanded our hero, with great earnestness, like a person aroused from sleep.

The officer answered, "The enemy, sir. Egad, they give way everywhere!"

Thereupon the general rejoined, "Go, one of you, my lads, to Colonel Burton—tell him to march Webb's regiment with all speed to Charles River to cut off the retreat

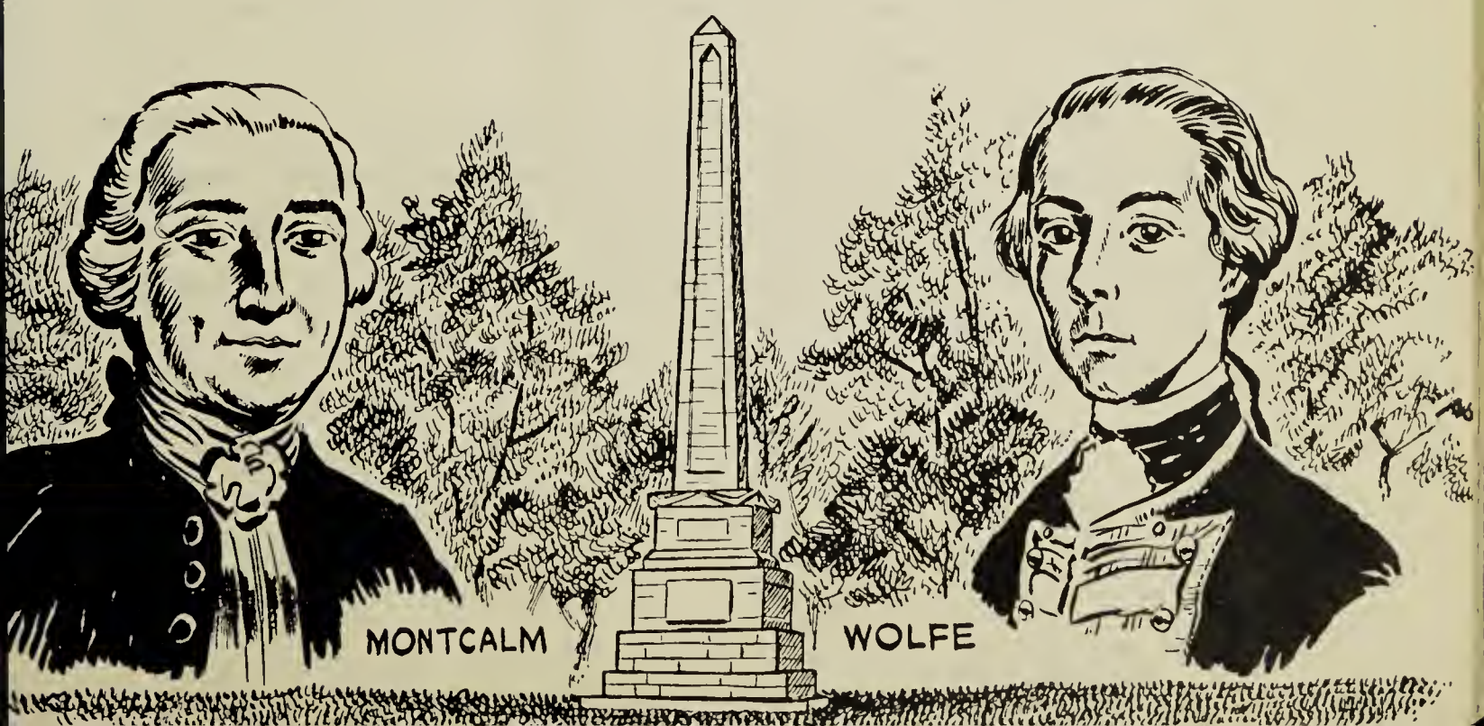
of the fugitives from the bridge." Then, turning on his side, he added, "Now, God be praised, I will die in peace."

Knox wrote that Montcalm, mortally wounded, was taken into Quebec. When the brave general asked the doctors how long he would live, he was told about twelve hours, perhaps more, perhaps less. "So much the better," rejoined this brave soldier, "I am happy I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

When asked what orders he had for the army, the general replied, "I'll neither give orders nor interfere any further. I have much business that must be attended to; my time is very short—therefore pray leave me—I wish you all comfort and to be happily extricated from your present perplexities." Then he sent for his chaplain.

Just before Montcalm died he said, "Since it was my misfortune to be discomfited and mortally wounded, it is a great consolation to be vanquished by so brave and generous an enemy."

Wolfe and Montcalm were great generals and gallant men. To-day on the Plains of Abraham outside the walls of Quebec a monument stands to honour them both. Wolfe's name is on one side, Montcalm's on the other. There is a Latin inscription which says: "Valour gave them a common death, history a common fame, and posterity a common memorial."



It may seem strange to some people that one monument should honour two generals who fought against each other. But both are Canadian heroes.

Canada's population to-day is made up partly of descendants of the early French settlers, and partly of people of British stock who came after the colony was handed over to Britain. These two groups differ in many ways. One group speaks French and almost all its members are Roman Catholics; the other speaks English and most of its members are Protestants. In their customs, in their language, the two groups are different. Yet they are united by a common devotion to Canada, to our form of government, and to our way of life. All are now Canadians.

For Further Study

1. Tell the story of the expulsion of the Acadians as Governor Lawrence might have told it ten years after he retired from the army.

2. Tell the story of the expulsion of the Acadians as one of the young farmers who was driven away from Grand Pré might have told it forty years later to his grandchildren. (Read Longfellow's *Evangeline*, in which you will find a story of the exile of the Acadians.)

3. Compare the experiences of the Acadians with those of the inhabitants of a village in Poland during World War II. Note that no Acadians were put to death and none were sent to concentration camps.

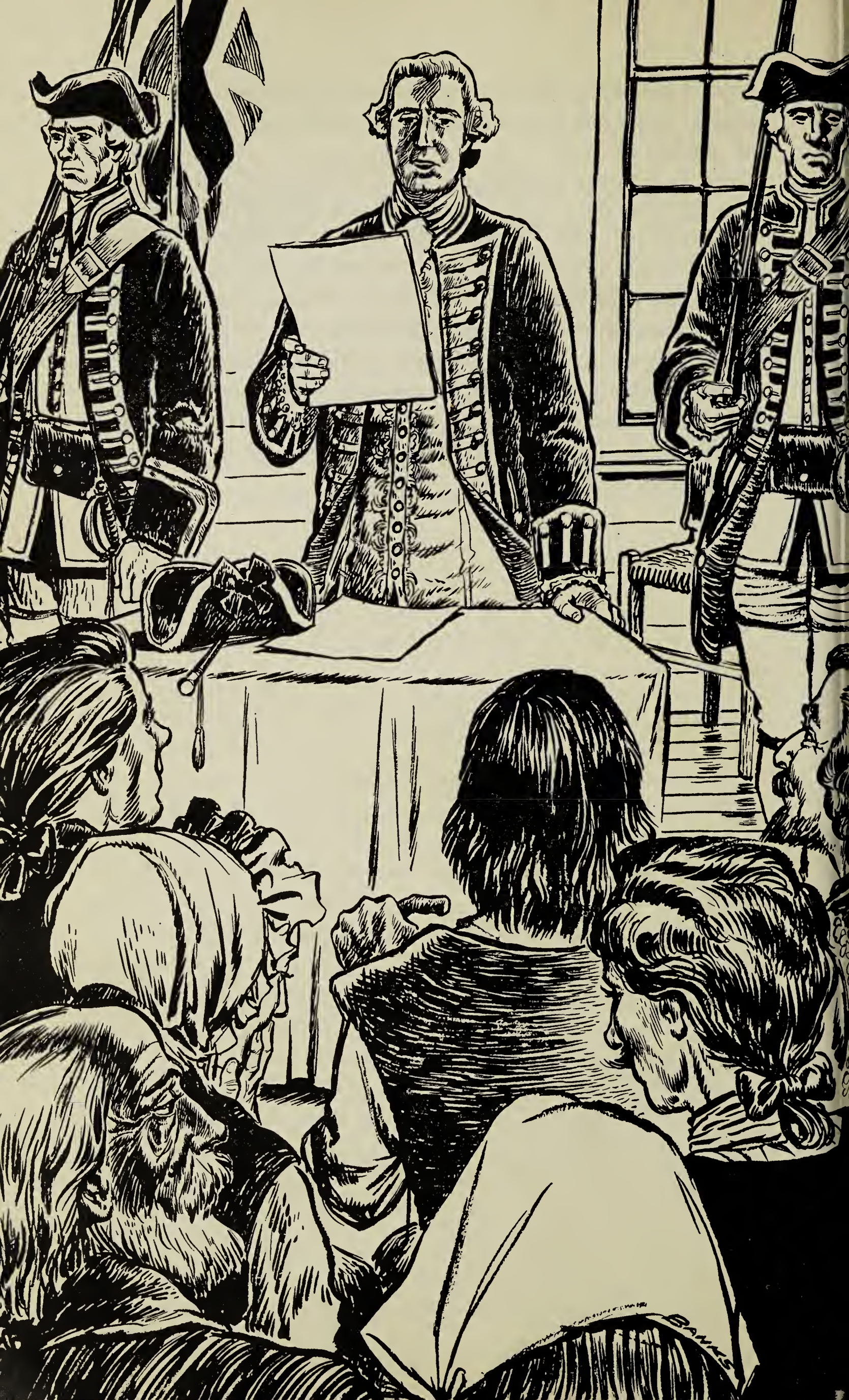
4. Tell the story of Braddock's defeat as one of the junior officers who had been trained in European methods of warfare might have told it when he returned to England. He would have to admit that Braddock should have listened to George Washington's advice.

5. Luck was with the British in the first capture of Louisbourg. Show how luck was still with the British in the capture of Quebec in 1759.

6. Port Royal, Louisbourg, and The Plains of Abraham are now historic sites, visited by thousands of tourists. Find out what you can about them. The Tourist Bureaus of Quebec and of Nova Scotia will supply information about them.

7. For your Book of Ships, draw a British man-of-war of the kind in which Wolfe appeared before Quebec in 1759.

8. There are some interesting stamps commemorating events in this unit. There is one with Wolfe and Montcalm side by side, another with a picture of the citadel at Quebec. Another has a picture of the church and the memorial to Evangeline at Grand Pré.



V. *Canada Under the British Flag*

19. Justice to a Conquered People

"Regions Caesar never knew
Thy posterity shall sway."
WILLIAM COWPER: *Boadicea*

Until 1763 the French had dreamed of a great French Empire in North America. This dream came to an end when France surrendered Canada to Britain.

Now Britain was supreme in North America. Canada, Acadia, Cape Breton, and Newfoundland were all under the British flag. The Thirteen Colonies were well-established along the Atlantic Coast. A great trading company, the Hudson's Bay Company, controlled the north and the west.

THE BRITISH DID NOT REALIZE THE IMPORTANCE OF THEIR NEW COLONY

When France surrendered Canada to Britain in 1763 neither the French nor the British realized how important this country would become. Voltaire, a great French writer, spoke of Canada as "a few acres of snow". Some of the British representatives who drew up the treaty suggested that it would be better for Britain to take Guadeloupe, a small island in the West Indies, and let the French keep Canada.

The British wanted control of Canada, not because they thought it was a country where British settlers would

want to live, but because they wanted to be free from danger of war with the French in America. Now that Canada was under British control, the settlers in the New England colonies no longer had to fear attacks by the French and their Indian allies. Traders from the colonies along the Atlantic coast could go into the Ohio Valley without fear that the French would drive them out. Settlers could press westward to take up the fertile farm lands of the Ohio Valley. The traders in the posts on Hudson Bay could carry on their trade with the Indians without fear of interference from the French.

Both the British and the French knew about the fine furs of the north and west, but only a few traders had ventured west of the Great Lakes and the Mississippi. No one realized what great areas of fertile land on the western plains waited for settlers. Neither nation had sent explorers west of the Rockies. Neither of them, at this time, had made any effort to establish colonies on the Pacific coast.

MOST OF THE FRENCH SETTLERS REMAIN

After the surrender, the French soldiers and government officials returned to France. Many of the wealthier merchants and seigniors went with them. However, between sixty and seventy thousand French settlers stayed in Canada. During the time between the fall of Quebec in 1759 and the surrender of Canada to the British by the Treaty of Paris in 1763, the government of the country was in the hands of the generals of the British army. Naturally, when Governor Murray and his soldiers took over the government, the people were beset by fears and misgivings. Canada had been conquered. What could they

expect from their conquerors? Fear turned to relief when General Murray read his Proclamation.

"All Canadians," he proclaimed, "are at liberty to return to their parishes, to take possession of their lands, dwellings and effects belonging to them, to reap their harvests, to practise their religion without the least impediment on the part of the English, who have come, not to ruin and destroy the Canadians, but to enable them to enjoy the mildness of a just and equitable government."

The settlers were pleasantly surprised to find that they were not driven off their farms, and that their own laws and customs were respected. They were especially pleased when the British paid cash for the provisions they bought from them. For some months before the war ended, the French army had been giving them nothing but worthless paper money for the provisions they took from them.

There was little to encourage the habitants to return to France. They were Canadians. Most of them had been born here. Canada was their home and they did not want to leave it. The habitants had cleared their own land, built their homes and their churches. The clergy encouraged them to stay. The parish priests, most of whom had come from Canadian families, were glad to remain in their parishes and to continue to guide and care for their people. Many of the seigniors, too, decided to stay. No doubt some of the French hoped that the day would come when France would win Canada back again.

A SMALL TRICKLE OF BRITISH SETTLERS

British officials came to govern the country and British soldiers came to keep order and to defend it if the need should arise. During the war several merchants had come with the army to look after supplies. After the surrender

of Quebec the British generals knew that all kinds of supplies were needed. They sent a message to the governors of New York and Massachusetts inviting traders "to transport themselves hither with quantities of molasses, salt, wines, teas, sugars, and all kinds of groceries, as likewise sheep and everything that may occur to them as useful."

Several of these merchants decided to remain in Canada. They hoped to sell goods to the people of the settlements and they hoped, also, to take a share in the profitable fur trade of the north and west. Most of the British merchants established themselves in Montreal, which soon surpassed Quebec in population and is now Canada's largest business centre.

BRITISH SETTLERS IN NOVA SCOTIA

In 1713 the British had regained Acadia and renamed it Nova Scotia. The British came to govern and to garrison the forts, but few British settlers came to make their homes in the new colony. In 1749, however, when it was obvious that there was likely to be war again between France and Britain in America, a party of twenty-five hundred settlers, mostly retired soldiers, was sent out under Colonel Cornwallis to found a settlement at Halifax. The British Government hoped that this settlement would help to keep Nova Scotia for Britain in the struggle which was coming. Later a few settlers came from Germany, a few from Switzerland, a few from Ireland, and some Protestant refugees came from France. But the population grew very slowly.

Then in 1755, when the Acadians who refused to take the oath of allegiance to Britain were driven out of the colony, their rich farm lands were deserted. The governor



Halifax, 1749

invited settlers from New England to come to take up these good lands. He realized that if war was coming Nova Scotia would need more settlers to defend it. Several thousand came from New England and settled on the farms which had belonged to the exiled Acadians.

There was, therefore, a beginning of a sturdy British community in Nova Scotia before the surrender of Canada.

20. The Loyalists Find New Homes

"Not drooping like poor fugitives they come,
In exodus to our Canadian wilds,
But full of heart and hope, with heads erect,
And fearless eyes victorious in defeat."

WILLIAM KIRBY: *The Hungry Year*

The British supremacy in North America did not last long. It did not last twenty years.

THE THIRTEEN AMERICAN COLONIES WIN THEIR INDEPENDENCE

Once the threat of war with France was removed, the people living in the colonies along the Atlantic coast no longer depended on the army and navy of Great Britain for protection. The British Government imposed certain

taxes to help pay for the Seven Years' War. The colonists bitterly resented these new taxes. On July 4th, 1776, representatives of the Thirteen Colonies at a meeting in Philadelphia issued the Declaration of Independence, and prepared to fight for their freedom. The British Government sent soldiers to suppress the revolution, but the colonies, with George Washington as their leader and with the help of France, were victorious.

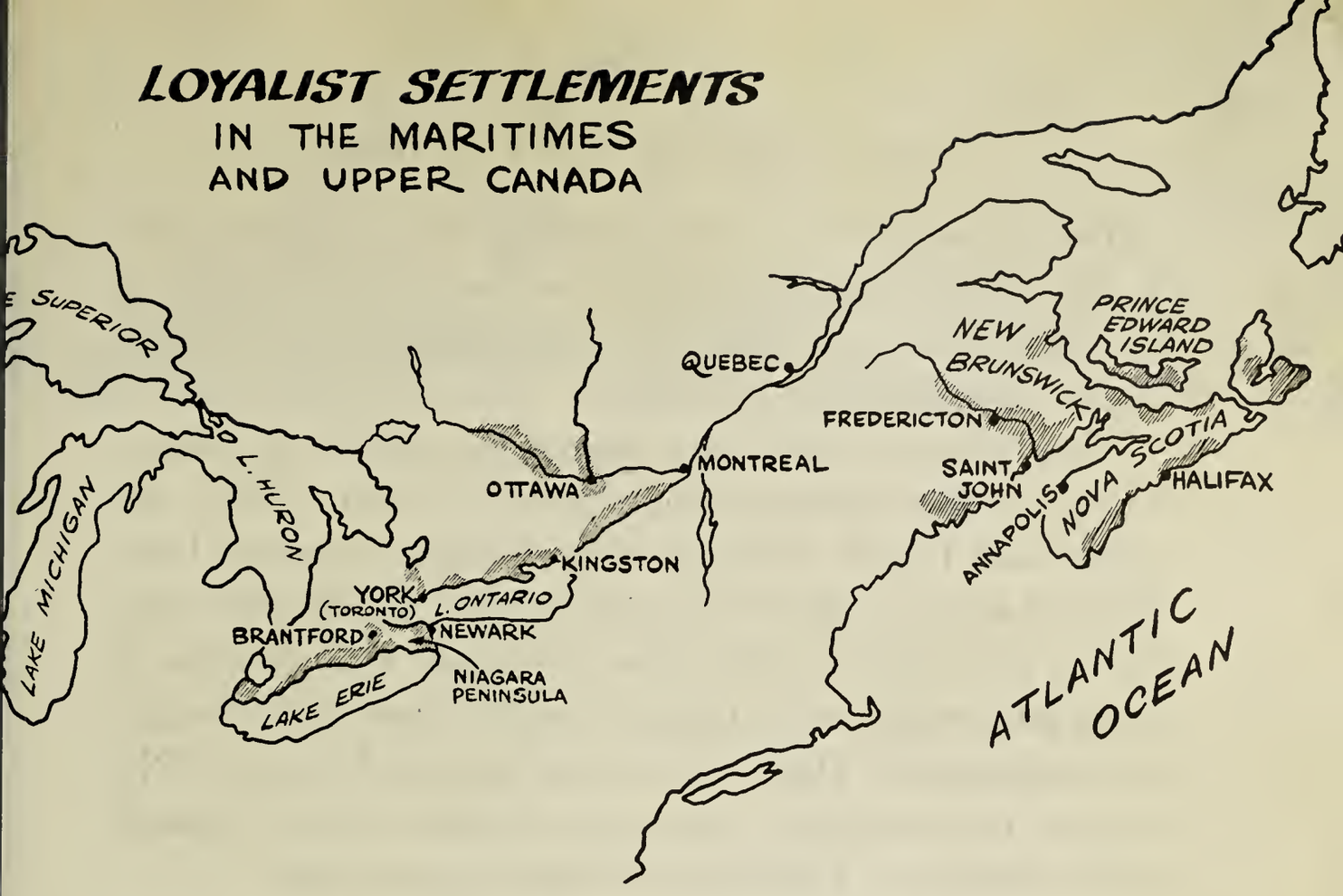
During the war, the American armies had tried to take Canada. Fortunately, the governor of Canada, Sir Guy Carleton, was a skilful general. The Americans took Montreal but they were not able to take Quebec. And they failed to persuade the people of Canada or of Nova Scotia to join the revolution.

The American colonists were not all in agreement about the revolution. Probably about one-third of the people in the colonies remained loyal to the British Crown. Many of them fought on Britain's side. The American War of Independence was, therefore, really a civil war, in which brother sometimes fought against brother, and neighbour against neighbour.

In 1783 Britain recognized the independence of the Thirteen Colonies. A new nation was born, the United States of America.

THE VICTORS DRIVE THE LOYALISTS OUT

When the war was over, the people who had remained loyal to Britain were in a very difficult situation. Their houses and barns were burned, their lands taken from them. Some were dragged through horse-ponds. Some were dipped in troughs of tar, rolled in feathers, and ridden through the streets on a rail. Some were lynched and their bodies hung from trees on the roadside. All who could sought safety in flight.



THE LOYALISTS SEEK NEW HOMES

Some of these Loyalists went to England, some to the West Indies. The nearest refuge was the British territory to the north. There the British Government offered them free land and help in starting new homes. About forty thousand came north, over half of them settling in what we now call Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island. Most of the others went to the area now called Ontario.

So many Loyalists came that two new provinces were established. The northern part of Nova Scotia was made into a separate province which was given the name New Brunswick. The land west of the Ottawa River was made into a new province then called Upper Canada, but now known as Ontario. The lower valley of the St. Lawrence was called Lower Canada. We now call it Quebec.

These new settlers paid a heavy price for their loyalty to the Mother Country. Many of them had to give up good positions, wealth, and good homes to start a new life under very difficult conditions.

The journey to their new homes was full of hardships. Those on the sea-coast came north by boat. When the war ended British transport ships brought crowded boat-loads of refugees from the coast towns. Those who came by sea settled in the Maritime Provinces, though some of them later migrated to Upper Canada when that province was organized. Those who came overland travelled by wagon, on horseback, and even on foot. A few crossed Lake Ontario or Lake Erie in small open boats.

Among the Loyalists who settled in Upper Canada were some Mohawk Indians led by Joseph Brant. They received a grant of land north of Lake Erie, and there the first Protestant church built in the province of Ontario was built by Brant and his Mohawk followers. The city of Brantford is named after Joseph Brant.

The Loyalists make their way to their new homes in Canada





There is great confusion as the Loyalists land at Saint John, New Brunswick

The hardships endured by these refugees almost defy description. So many came in so short a time that it was impossible to provide for them properly. Those who had any money had to spend most of it for food and shelter during the first winter.

Thousands were landed from British transports in the harbour of Halifax, only to find that there was no room for them in the little town. There is a tradition that in the bitter winter of 1783-1784 cabins were taken off the ships and ranged along the main street, and there, in crowded quarters, the refugee families were housed. Those who were landed at the mouth of the St. John River found that practically no preparation had been made for them. They had to clear away the brushwood before they could put up tents or build rough cabins to shelter them until they received their grants of land.

"Nothing but wilderness before our eyes," one of the exiles wrote in his diary. "The women and children did not refrain from tears." Another newcomer, whose grandson, Sir Leonard Tilley, was destined to be one of the Fathers of Confederation, later told her children that, as the ships sailed away, "such a feeling of loneliness came over me that, although I had not shed a tear through all the war, I sat down on the damp moss, with my baby in my lap, and cried."

The British Government had promised free grants of land to the refugees. But the Government could not grant land until those lands had been surveyed, and there were very few surveyors in the colonies. The unhappy refugees sometimes had to wait months before they knew where they would be given land. As a district was surveyed, each piece of land suitable for a grant was given a number. A day and a place was set for the distribution of the grants. The numbers were written on pieces of paper and put in a hat, from which each man in his turn drew a slip of paper bearing the number of his grant. The surveyors entered the name and the number on a map.

It must have been very exciting for these men to draw their numbers. Eagerly they turned to look on the map to see where their future homes were to be. Some were fortunate in drawing a grant fronting on water, while others drew poor, rough, stony land, or land which was covered with forest. Whatever it was, it was their own and they had to make the best of it.

Once a Loyalist had his land grant, he could begin to make plans for his home. But he needed many things before he could build a home or clear the land. He needed axes and saws with which to cut down the trees, and tools for building. He needed spades and hoes to prepare his patch of cleared land for cultivation, and seed grain and vegetable seeds for planting. Then he needed sickles or scythes to cut his grain.

The British Government spent about thirty million dollars to help the Loyalists establish themselves in new homes. Tools, farm implements, seed grain, and vegetable seeds were sent from Britain. It took time, because the ocean trip was long and transportation to the farms

after the goods had been landed was often slow and difficult. Sometimes the articles were not distributed fairly. The Government was generous to the Loyalists but it could not foresee all their needs. There were many hardships, many disappointments.

LIFE IN A LOYALIST SETTLEMENT

The first homes of the Loyalists were small log cabins, made from the trees which were cut down in clearing the land. Often the windows were covered with oiled paper, since glass was scarce and expensive. At first a blanket served to cover the doorway until sawed lumber could be obtained to make a door. Some of the Loyalists succeeded in bringing with them a few pieces of furniture or some family heirlooms, perhaps a spinning-wheel, or a clock, or a pair of fire-irons. These relics of their former wealth were in sharp contrast with the rest of the furniture. Chairs, benches, tables, beds, and chests were made by hand from rough wood. A descendant of one of the refugee families states that the family dinner-table was a huge stump, hewn flat on top, standing in the middle of the floor. When the clothing they had brought with them wore out, the settlers made new garments, as the

Loyalists build a rough house in the wilderness





The Loyalists burn out the stumps as they prepare their land for crops

Indians did, from deerskin. Even the daughters of prosperous Loyalists counted themselves fortunate in those early days if they could have wedding dresses of calico.

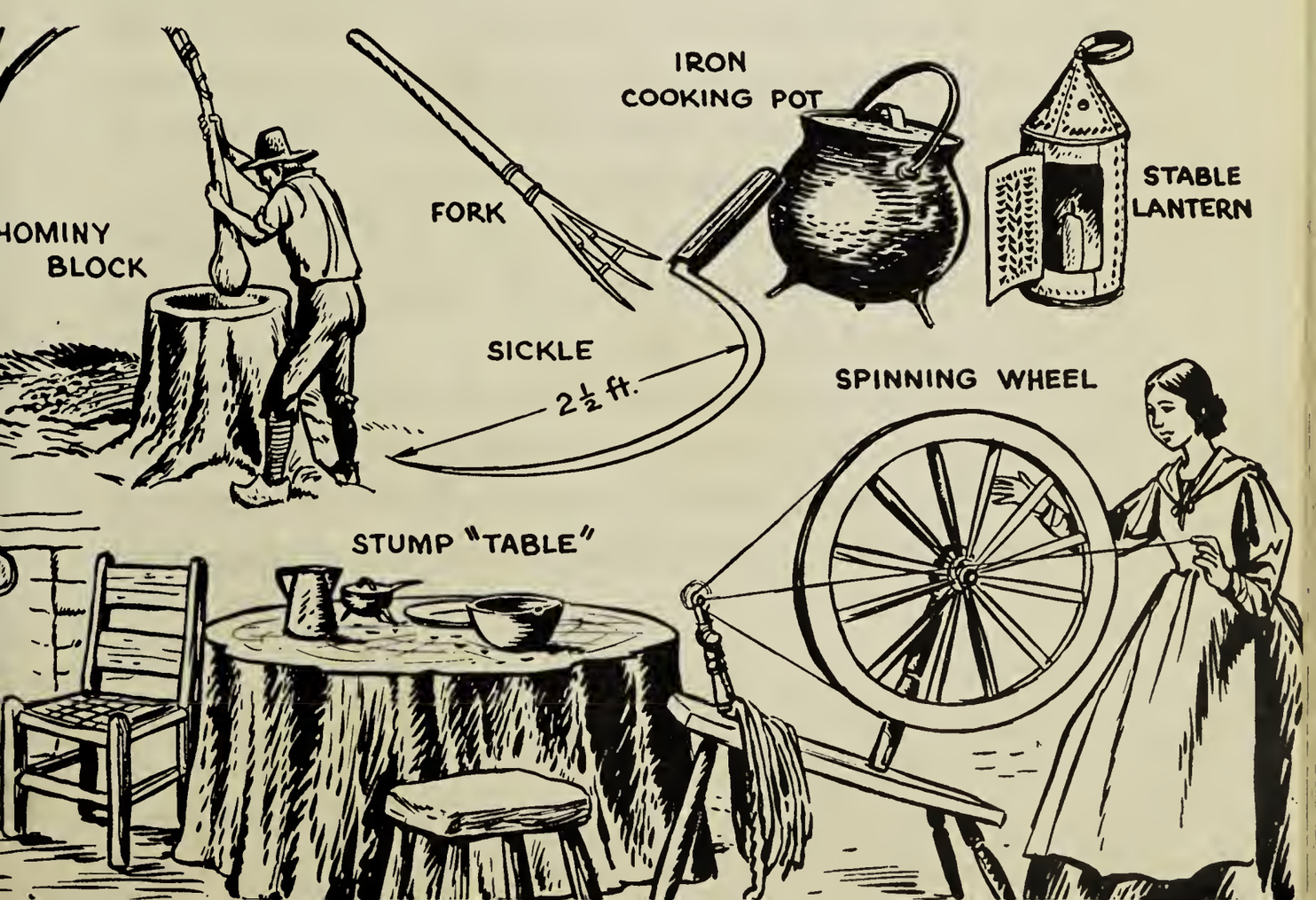
The lot of the Loyalists in Upper Canada was even worse than that of those who settled in the Maritime Provinces. Many of them had spent the winter in misery and discomfort in the camps established for them below Montreal. They were dependent upon the Government for everything. It was several seasons before their little clearings in the bush yielded crops sufficient for their needs. The rapids of the St. Lawrence cut them off from the rest of Canada and made the arrival of supplies irregular and uncertain. The Government gave out food rations for some years. Unfortunately, the year the rations were stopped, the crop was poor, and the winter very severe. There was little game to be found for food, and many families had neither guns nor powder to shoot what game there was. That year, 1788, was known as the "Hungry Year".

In time, the wilderness was conquered. Land was cleared, some roads and trails were made through the forest, and before long the settlers began to make plans for schools and churches.

Many of the colonists had had little experience of manual labour. Yet they faced the task of carving out their new homes in the wilderness with a courage and endurance which was heroic.

Sir Guy Carleton, the governor, decided that some recognition should be given to these people who had remained loyal to Britain during the troubled times. Therefore, he gave them the right to put the initials, U.E.L., for United Empire Loyalist, after their names as a title of honour.

Canadians to-day honour the memory of the United Empire Loyalists for the part they played in building the foundations of our country. Their descendants have reason to be proud of the bravery of their ancestors in facing the difficulties and dangers of pioneer life. The Loyalists opened up great areas of our country. They helped to establish and maintain British methods of government, and they helped to cement the tie between the colonies and the Mother Country.





John Graves Simcoe and Mrs. Simcoe are welcomed at York

21. John Graves Simcoe, Builder of Upper Canada

"Here in centuries to come
When man, his old world conquered,
Turns to these desert solitudes for space
To found new empires, cities will arise
And trade possess the land."
O. J. STEVENSON: *The Unconquerable North*

THE FOUNDING OF YORK, NOW TORONTO

On the morning of Tuesday, July 30th, 1793, His Majesty's schooner, the *Mississaga*, sailed into what is now Toronto harbour. An English officer and his attractive wife stepped ashore, accompanied by a detachment of Queen's Rangers. On shore an advance party of Queen's Rangers was building an encampment. Except for the partly built encampment, the only dwellings in sight were some Indian wigwams, half-hidden among the trees of the forest which came to the water's edge.

Such was the founding of the city of Toronto, which was destined to be the capital of Upper Canada, and Canada's second largest city.

The British officer who landed on the shores of Toronto harbour that July morning was Colonel John Graves Simcoe, the first lieutenant-governor of the new province of Upper Canada. Mrs. Simcoe, who so courageously

accompanied her husband into the wilderness, kept a diary which has proved to be of very great value to historians because of its excellent descriptions of her life in the new land.

John Graves Simcoe had first come to Upper Canada as lieutenant-governor in 1792. At that time the capital was situated at Newark (now Niagara-on-the-Lake). Simcoe thought that Newark was much too open to possible attack by the Americans. Kingston, which had been the headquarters of the British navy on Lake Ontario, he considered too difficult to defend. Naturally, since he had been a soldier, he was looking for a site which could be held if war should come again. For that reason, he decided to place the capital in the western part of the province. Meanwhile he planned to make Toronto harbour the chief naval port on Lake Ontario.

Colonel and Mrs. Simcoe lived in a tent on the shores of the harbour while Colonel Simcoe directed the building of a new settlement. He planned a blockhouse to guard the entrance of the harbour, and near it he placed the barracks for the Queen's Rangers. East of this he had his surveyors lay out a town site of ten blocks. He named the town York in honour of one of the King's sons.

SIMCOE ORGANIZES THE GOVERNMENT

Upper Canada was very fortunate in its first lieutenant-governor. Simcoe was a man who put his whole soul into anything he did. No effort or hardship was too great for him. When he came to Newark in 1792, his first task was to organize the government of the province. He divided the provinces into counties, and arranged for the election of members to a Legislative Assembly. He called the first Parliament and directed the making of the first laws.

Once he had organized the government, he set out to study the province and its needs. By this time the population of Upper Canada was probably over ten thousand. Settlers were scattered along the north shore of the St. Lawrence, around the Bay of Quinté on Lake Ontario, and in the Niagara Peninsula. The rest of the province was unbroken wilderness. Simcoe realized that if he was going to govern this province wisely he should see it with his own eyes. On foot or on horseback, he travelled hundreds of miles throughout the province, west as far as Detroit, and north to Georgian Bay.

These journeys gave Simcoe a first-hand knowledge of the province. One of the first decisions he had to make was the choice of a capital. He chose a site which he called London, on a river which he named the Thames. However, since at that time there was not a single house in London, Simcoe considered York (Toronto) his temporary capital and there he had two frame buildings built to provide a suitable meeting place for the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly. London, Ontario, on the river Thames, is to-day a large and prosperous city but it never became the capital of Upper Canada. After Simcoe returned to England, the next governor decided that the capital must be where it could be reached by water. The river Thames is too small for big boats. In time York became the permanent capital of the province.

Simcoe tours Upper Canada so that he can govern it wisely





Simcoe advertises the advantages of Upper Canada to persuade settlers to come

HE INVITES SETTLERS TO UPPER CANADA

Simcoe realized that what Canada needed most was settlers. He believed that there were many people in the United States who would prefer to live under the British flag. He put advertisements in many newspapers in the United States inviting settlers to come to Upper Canada and he offered them free land. Many came. Most of these "late Loyalists", as they were called, proved excellent settlers. Some, however, were attracted more by the free land than by the prospect of living under the British flag. When war came later between Canada and the United States, some of these newcomers hoped that Canada would become a part of the United States.

HE BUILDS ROADS

If Upper Canada was to attract settlers, it must have roads. In 1792 Simcoe set the Queen's Rangers to work building a road from York north to Lake Simcoe. This road was called Yonge Street after Sir George Yonge, Secretary of State for War and the Colonies in Great Britain. Yonge Street, Toronto, starts at the harbour, extends through the city as its chief business street, and continues north for miles to Lake Simcoe. Then Simcoe planned a road which was to extend from Kingston through York and London to Detroit. He was able to complete only the part now known as the Dundas Road which ran from the head of Lake Ontario to London.

Since Simcoe remained in Canada only five years, he was not able to complete all his plans. His successors were neither as wise nor as energetic as he had been. Many of his ideas had to wait a long time before they were put into practice. The university he had planned to establish did not open its doors until half a century after he came to Upper Canada.

John Graves Simcoe may truly be called the father of Upper Canada. It was Simcoe who laid wisely and well the foundations of the great province of Ontario, the province with the largest population and the greatest wealth of all the provinces of Canada. His strong sense of duty, his willingness to work for his country, his honesty and his patriotism left the people of Upper Canada an example which is still an inspiration to those who remember his deeds.

22. Canada at War With Her Neighbour

"The cheers that stir the sacred hill
Are but mere promptings of the will
That conquered then, that conquers still:
And generations yet shall thrill
At Brock's remembered name."

CHARLES SANGSTER: *Brock*

WAR IN EUROPE AFFECTS AMERICAN TRADE

Before the American Revolution, the British colonies in America had enjoyed a prosperous trade with England and with the West Indies. After the United States became independent this trade continued. The Americans could also trade freely with France and other European countries. For many years France and Britain were at war. While they were busy with the war, they needed the supplies they could get from America more than ever. Americans were making money selling to both countries.

Napoleon conquered most of the continent of Europe. If Britain had not had control of the seas he would have invaded England. He knew that Britain depended on her trade with America, and therefore he tried to destroy that trade by declaring that no nations might trade with Britain. This would have been very bad for Britain if he had been able to enforce it. Fortunately, his navy was not strong enough. Britain answered by saying that no nation might trade with France or with the countries controlled by France.

Whenever the British could, they captured ships going to France. Whenever the French could, they captured ships going to England. Neither nation was trying to hurt the American trade, but, of course, this was very hard on the American merchants who had been selling to both countries at high prices. Since the British navy was stronger than the French navy, the British seized more ships than the French could. As a result the Americans were more angry at Britain than they were at France.

Britain was fighting for her life. For a while it looked as if Napoleon might conquer the whole of Europe, including the British Isles, and then start looking for new worlds to conquer.

AMERICANS OBJECT WHEN BRITISH SEARCH THEIR SHIPS FOR DESERTERS

Life was very hard in the British navy and some of the sailors deserted. The British began to stop American ships and search them for deserters. If they found a British sailor on an American ship, they took him off and made him work on a British ship. Occasionally they took American sailors who had no papers to prove that they were not British. The American Government protested



The British search an American ship for deserters. Actions such as these result in the War of 1812

but the British did not stop. Naturally, the Americans resented Britain's actions.

TROUBLE IN THE OHIO VALLEY

Some of the Indian tribes of the Ohio Valley had been allies of the British during the American War of Independence, and they continued to be more friendly to the British than to the Americans. As settlers from the eastern states began to move into this fertile territory, they came into conflict with Tecumseh, an able and heroic leader of the Shawnees, who formed a confederacy of the Indian tribes to defend their hunting-grounds against the advancing flood of settlers. The Americans knew that the Indians were getting their guns and ammunition from Montreal traders, and they had reason to suspect that the traders were encouraging the Indians to destroy their settlements. "War-hawks" began to argue that the best way to settle the difficulty would be to take Canada and make it part of the United States.

Many settlers had already come to Upper Canada from the United States. In messages to their old homes they told of fertile lands, good climate, excellent timber. Some Americans thought they should take this territory. So many of their countrymen had settled in Canada that they thought there would be very little difficulty in taking control of it for the United States.

Not all Americans wanted this war. The people of the New England States were strongly opposed to it even though they had suffered more than any other group in the country as a result of Britain's seizing of their ships and cargoes. They knew that war would ruin their trade. When war was declared, the flags in Boston were flown at half-mast. The "war-hawks" were from the West and the South.



SCENE OF THE
WAR of 1812

"I believe that in four weeks from the time a declaration of war is heard on our frontier," declared one American, "the whole of Upper Canada and a part of Lower Canada will be ours."

"We can take Canada without soldiers," boasted another. "We have only to send officers into the province and the people will rally around our standard." Another prophesied that it would be "a mere matter of marching".

They knew that the British would not be able to send much help to the Canadians because they were so busy with their desperate struggle with France.

There were, however, factors in the situation which were not known to the people who thought it would be so easy to take Canada. They did not know that Canada, at that time, was a country practically without roads, a fact that made invasion rather difficult. They had forgotten that the Indians hated the Stars and Stripes and respected the Union Jack. They did not realize that a small force of trained soldiers, such as the British had in Canada, counted for more in battle than many times their number of untrained volunteers. They had forgotten that there were many United Empire Loyalists in Canada who, having good reason to hate the Americans for the treatment they had received at the end of the American War of Independence, would rally to resist the invasion. And they did not know that the defence of Canada was in the hands of a brave soldier who had a truly great genius for warfare, Sir Isaac Brock.

NEITHER SIDE WON THE WAR

The Americans were disappointed in their hope of a quick and easy victory. If they had concentrated their



Brock, leading his men to victory on Queenston Heights, is mortally wounded

forces on an attack on Montreal by way of the Lake Champlain-Richelieu River route, they might have cut Upper Canada off from supplies and they might have won. Instead, however, they scattered their forces all the way from Detroit to the Richelieu River. Brock organized his forces promptly. He took Fort Michilimackinac by surprise and made a large American force surrender at Detroit. When American troops took up a position on Queenston Heights, Brock led the charge against them. The Americans were driven out, and a decisive victory won for the British. Unfortunately, the brave commander was killed in battle. To-day a great monument to his memory stands on the site of the battle of Queenston Heights.

The war went on for nearly three years. The Americans burned York (now Toronto) and the British burned Wash-



The British march into Washington and burn the Capitol, the President's house, and other buildings

ington. The Americans won most of the naval battles on the lakes; the British, assisted by the Canadian militia, won most of the battles on land.

By the spring of 1814 there was a lull in the war in Europe. The British were able to send reinforcements to America. They were able to spare enough ships to ruin the shipping trade of the New England States. The people whose business was being ruined demanded that this useless war should be ended. Even the western "war-hawks" began to realize that the conquest of Canada would be difficult, if not impossible. The Canadians had never wanted war, and the British had had so much fighting in Europe that they wanted no more.

Therefore, since nobody wanted the war to continue, a treaty was signed on Christmas Eve, 1814. Neither nation gained any territory. The treaty arranged for commissions to meet to settle any disputes about the boundary between the two countries.

From that day to this Canada and the United States have been at peace with each other.

23. The Rising Tide of Immigration

"We came to build, and building, a mighty structure grew,
And ever as we builded, builded better than we knew;
And through the darkening wilderness, lo! we were led in
might.
Our log-heaps made a smoke by day, a pillared flame by
night,
Now, when across the continent we've seen our task
expand,
To our children's children and their children's children
we do bequeath this land."

ROBERT K. KERNIGHAN: *Pioneer's Anthem*

WHY THEY CAME

For many years, people who were seeking opportunities and adventure had left Great Britain to go to the Thirteen Colonies. As the good lands near the east coast were taken up, newcomers had to go farther and farther west to find land. After Britain gained control of Nova Scotia and of Canada, many of the people who wanted to find new homes began to inquire about the opportunities in the new colonies to the north.

There were many reasons why people wanted to leave Great Britain to seek better conditions for themselves and for their families. In Scotland tenants were being driven off their little farms so that the landlord could keep sheep. In England, now that machines were making cloth more quickly and more cheaply than it had ever been made before, thousands of people were thrown out of work. Ireland had been torn by a rebellion which had been a failure, and the laws against the Roman Catholics were still very harsh there. Little wonder that thousands of people from Great Britain began to plan to move to America.

Sometimes the members of a family all contributed to send one member to "the colonies". If his reports about the opportunities in the new land were favourable, other members of the family came as soon as they could.

NEW SETTLEMENTS

Most of the settlers paid their own way. The British Government helped some veterans from the wars and some unemployed to come to the new land. Lord Selkirk brought eight hundred people from Scotland and established them in Prince Edward Island. The Nova Scotia and New Brunswick Land Company brought settlers to those provinces. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, proved to be well-named, for it came to be the new home for hundreds from Old Scotland. Highlanders from Glengarry in Scotland came to a new Glengarry on the banks of the St. Lawrence, and Lowlanders from Lanark made new homes in a new Lanark in Upper Canada.

John Galt, a Scottish novelist, formed the Canada Land Company. Under his direction, the company bought a million acres of land, known as the Huron tract, and built a road through the forest, thus establishing communication by land between Lake Huron and Lake Ontario. Settlers poured into the counties of Waterloo, Perth, Huron, and Bruce, and the towns of Goderich, Guelph, and Galt were established. Peter Robinson brought a group of Irish settlers to the Peterborough district.



* EARLY SETTLEMENTS IN UPPER CANADA *

Colonel Tom Talbot was a member of a noble family in Ireland who came to Canada as an officer in the army with Colonel Simcoe. When he retired from the army he obtained a huge grant of land along the shore of Lake Erie. At Port Talbot he had a three-room log cabin built to serve as his home and his office. There "the once gay Tom Talbot", as he described himself, began the work of placing settlers on his land. He allowed each settler two hundred acres of land, fifty free and the rest at three dollars an acre. The settlement grew slowly, but before Talbot died in 1853 the settlers numbered over 70,000. Two flourishing towns had grown up in the Talbot settlement—London, the site which Colonel Simcoe had hoped to make the capital of Upper Canada, and St. Thomas, named after Talbot, though anyone who knew him would have testified that he was no saint.

Colonel Talbot was a picturesque figure. In his sheepskin coat and cap, he was a familiar sight throughout his settlement. He never forgot or let anyone else forget that he was a Talbot from Malahide Castle in Ireland. Like a medieval baron he ruled over his settlers. He considered himself lord of the settlement. Once a year he invited the settlers to his home, as the lords in Ireland invited the tenants and peasants once a year. He never married, but he built himself a great house on the top of a cliff looking over Lake Erie. He called it Malahide Castle.

Talbot had a terrible temper, and if he took a dislike to a tenant he did not hesitate to force him to leave the settlement. His word was law. He gave his settlers no title deeds to their farms. He merely wrote their names in pencil on a large map hanging on the wall, and if the

land changed hands he rubbed out the one name and wrote in the new one. These pencil marks were as good as deeds, for everyone knew that Tom Talbot would keep his word.

Neither Talbot nor the land companies brought settlers to Canada as an act of charity. They expected to make money out of their projects. They realized that they were offering the newcomers an opportunity to make homes for themselves, but they expected the settlers to pay their way. Even where land was given at low cost or free to the first comers, the very fact that there were settlers in the district made the rest of the land more valuable.

THE POPULATION GROWS

More and more people came. Settlers who had established themselves sent home glowing accounts of their life in the new country. Friends and relatives from the Old Country, encouraged by these tales of success, began to look upon Canada as a land of promise. The population doubled and redoubled.

There are many other settlements of which one might tell an interesting story. There is the story of the Acadians who found their way to New Brunswick in such numbers that there are more descendants of the early Acadians in that province than in any other part of Canada. There is the story of the Highland immigration to Cape Breton, where even to-day there are many who speak "the Gaelic", the language of their forefathers, and the story of the German settlers from Pennsylvania who founded the present city of Kitchener. There is the story of the founding of Ottawa by Colonel John By, the engineer in charge of building the Rideau canal.

The pioneers who came from Great Britain in the nineteenth century met the same difficulties which the Loyalists had had to face. Many of the newcomers arrived with no money. It had taken all they had to pay their way over. Even when they had their grant of land, they still had to build their own log cabins from trees which they cut down and chopped into shape. They had to sow their grain by hand on ground from which with great toil they had cleared away the forest. When the grain ripened it had to be cut with a scythe, bound into sheaves, and threshed with a flail in the granary.

Many of the pioneers made their own flour by grinding the grain between two stones. Some of them used a "hominy block". To make a hominy block they burned a bowl-shaped hole in the centre of a stump. Then they put the grain in this hole and pounded it with a wooden pestle or a stone, if they found one of the right size and shape. Later, when grist mills were built, the farmer took his grain to the mill, often carrying it on his shoulders, and had it ground into flour.

If a settler had a gun he could usually provide plenty of meat for his family. Deer and rabbits were plentiful when the settlers first took up their farms. Occasionally, a family lived for weeks on bear-steaks, and roasts and stews of bear-meat. There was good fishing in the streams and rivers and lakes.

There were some things the farmer could not grow, some things he had to buy. One of the most important was salt. It was expensive, but the settlers had to have it to preserve the fish and meat for the seasons when they had not time to fish or hunt, or for the time when game was scarce. Many a farmer walked miles for the precious

bag of salt. Salt fish and salt meat had to be stored in barrels, which the farmer had to make himself.

Wild fruit, strawberries, blueberries, raspberries, and grapes grew in abundance. Even the youngest children could take part in the berry-picking. The first fine day when the berries were ripe, all who could be spared from the work of the house and the farm set out with their pails and their baskets. As they picked they sang or shouted to each other, to keep away any bears who might be coming to feast on the berries. When their pails and baskets were full the berry-pickers took the fruit home, where it was either dried for use next winter, or preserved with maple sugar.



MAKING MAPLE SUGAR

Maple sugar and maple syrup were very important products. Every farmer left a clump of maple trees standing; the sugar-bush it was called. Sugar-making time came in the spring of the year. When the warm sun of early March started the sap running in the trees, the farmer set out to tap the trees. He cut a gash in each tree, put a trough below it, and collected the sap in a pail or tub. Near the sugar-bush he set up a large iron pot, suspended from a pole above a fire which he kept burning night and day. There the sap was boiled down to maple syrup and maple sugar. Sugar-making was a happy time for the pioneer families. It marked the beginning of spring after the long cold winter. Usually friends and neighbours were invited to the last boiling of the season, the sugaring-off they called it, when young and old joined in making and eating the sugar taffy.

An open fire-place served both for heating the cabin and for cooking. The housewives had long-handled frying-pans which they could hold over the coals, and iron pots which they hung from hooks over the fire.

Even lighting the fire was a problem. These early settlers had no matches. Usually they tried to keep the fire burning in the hearth all the time. They had plenty of good wood, which lasted like coal. The fire would die down at night, but most often there were glowing embers from which they could start the next day's fire. Sometimes, if the fire did go out, it was easier to walk half a mile or more to a neighbour's house and "borrow some fire", by bringing home some glowing embers in a pail, than it was to start a fire by rubbing wood together, or striking the flint of a gun against a knife blade.

In the winter evenings the fire on the hearth provided a flickering light for the cabin. When more light was



needed, because there was work which must be done, tallow dips or candles were lit. These candles were made by the housewives from the fat or tallow of sheep. From fat, with lye made from wood ashes, the pioneers made their own soap. It was not a dainty perfumed soap, but it was all they had.

At first the pioneer women had to make all the clothing for their families. When the clothing they brought with them wore out, they had to make new. They learned from the Indian women how to tan deerskin, and from it they made warm sturdy garments.

As soon as the farmers had some sheep, the pioneers had another source of clothing. When the sheep were sheared, the women and children picked, carded and spun the wool for weaving. They knitted stockings and mittens from their homespun wool. They wove it into cloth on home-made looms. They coloured it with dyes made from the juice of berries, from sumach and golden-rod and the bark of the butternut tree. Then they made it into clothing for the family. The leather for shoes was also tanned and prepared at home, and many a farmer spent his winter evenings striving to make shoes for his

family. After a few years, travelling tailors and shoemakers went from farm to farm, taking part of their pay in board and lodging and part in goods which they sold in the next town they visited.

When more settlers came, life on the farms was not so lonely. Closer neighbours meant help for the settlers in time of need. When work was to be done which one family could not accomplish by itself, the neighbours came to help. All the neighbours used to gather for a logging-bee to help clear away the trees the farmer had cut down. A framing- or raising-bee was held when a barn or new house was to be built. For days after the word had gone out that a bee was to be held, the women of the household cooked and baked to provide a good meal for their guests and helpers. It was a matter of pride to set a good table for the visitors.

Pioneers show they are good neighbours by helping each other to build barns and houses



For Further Study

1. Present a discussion between two seigniors, one of whom decides to stay in Canada after the coming of the British and one of whom decides to go back to France, giving their reasons for their decisions.

2. Make a poster advertising the fertile Acadian fields to the New Englanders.

3. The Loyalists were "displaced persons". In what ways were their experiences like those of displaced persons from Europe to-day? In what ways were they different?

4. Make a mural of the story of the Loyalists. Show them arriving by ship, ox-cart, or on foot; drawing lots for their land; clearing a place for their cabins; receiving their government grant of tools, seed and livestock. Show them five years later with a cabin built and some land cleared. In one panel you might show the tools and implements the farmer used, in another, the spinning-wheels, looms, candle moulds, long-handled pans, and out-door ovens the women used.

5. Find out, if you can, how these early settlers made soap, dye, brooms, glue, furniture, candles, blankets, and clothing.

6. Establishing homes in the backwoods would have been almost impossible without the stumping, barn-raising, and other bees. Give your reasons for agreeing or disagreeing with this statement.

7. What preparations would a pioneer housewife make for a barn-raising-bee?

8. "But for Sir Isaac Brock the Americans might have taken Canada." Do you agree or disagree? Give reasons for your opinion.

9. Read the story of Laura Secord in *Famous Canadian Stories* by Donald French or in the Ryerson Reader, *Laura Secord.* You might like to dramatize her experiences.

10. On a modern road map mark the roads which Simcoe planned and built.

11. Draw a graph showing the growth in population in Upper Canada. In 1791 there were about 15,000 inhabitants,

in 1824, 150,066; in 1840, 432,159; in 1871, 1,620,851. (You can find these figures in the *Canada Year Book.*)

12. Draw a graph showing the growth of population in Lower Canada. In 1791 the population numbered about 163,000. In 1822, there were 427,465 inhabitants; in 1844, 697,084; in 1871, 1,191,516.

13. A stamp commemorating the Loyalists was issued in 1934. Add it to your collection.

14. Find out what you can about your own community. When did the first settlers come? Are any of their descendants still living there? When was the first school built? the first church built? the first newspaper established? When did the railway come to your community? Have any battles been fought near your home?



VI. *Unrolling the Map to the North and West*

24. Hudson's Bay Men Go Inland

"And names of all great men who came and went
And traced out all the frontiers of this land,
Heroes of dauntless heart, a fever in the blood
To seek new worlds and wander till they reached the farthest west."

O. J. Stevenson: *Pathfinders*

The Hudson's Bay Company hoped to carry on trade from the forts on Hudson Bay. Most of the men who came to the Bay in the service of the Company were sailors. They were willing to risk their lives on stormy seas, but few of them cared to venture out of sight of the fort. They were not prepared to encounter the wild animals, the unfriendly Indians, or the unknown demons that might live inland. As far as they were concerned, the Indians were savages to be traded with, if and when they brought their furs to the forts on the Bay.

There were, however, three men in the service of the Company in its early days who dared to make their way inland. They were Henry Kelsey, who went south-west from York Factory to the country of the Assiniboine

Indians; Anthony Henday, who travelled west beyond the Red Deer River into the country of the Blackfoot Indians; and Samuel Hearne, who ventured north to the mouth of the Coppermine River.

Kelsey and Henday made their expeditions to urge the Indians to bring their furs to the forts. Hearne was seeking the copper which, according to the Indians, was to be found in the far north.

KELSEY SEES THE BUFFALO

In 1684 a little sailing vessel named the *Happy Return* set out from England for York Factory on Hudson Bay. Two men who are now famous in the history of Canada were on board. One was Pierre Radisson, who had made many trips to the Bay. The other was a fourteen-year-old apprentice, Henry Kelsey.

Kelsey had signed on as an apprentice for four years, at the end of which time he was to receive in payment for his services £8 and two new suits of clothing. During his years as an apprentice he was to do whatever work the governor of the fort commanded.

The rules at the Hudson's Bay Company fort were strict. Only the governor and the chief trader were allowed to trade with the Indians, and apprentices were forbidden to make friends with them. They were forbidden to go outside the fort without permission. Since Kelsey was an active, energetic boy who found life in the fort too dull for him, he used to slip out through the gate and wander over the country-side. He made friends with the Indians and learned to speak their language.

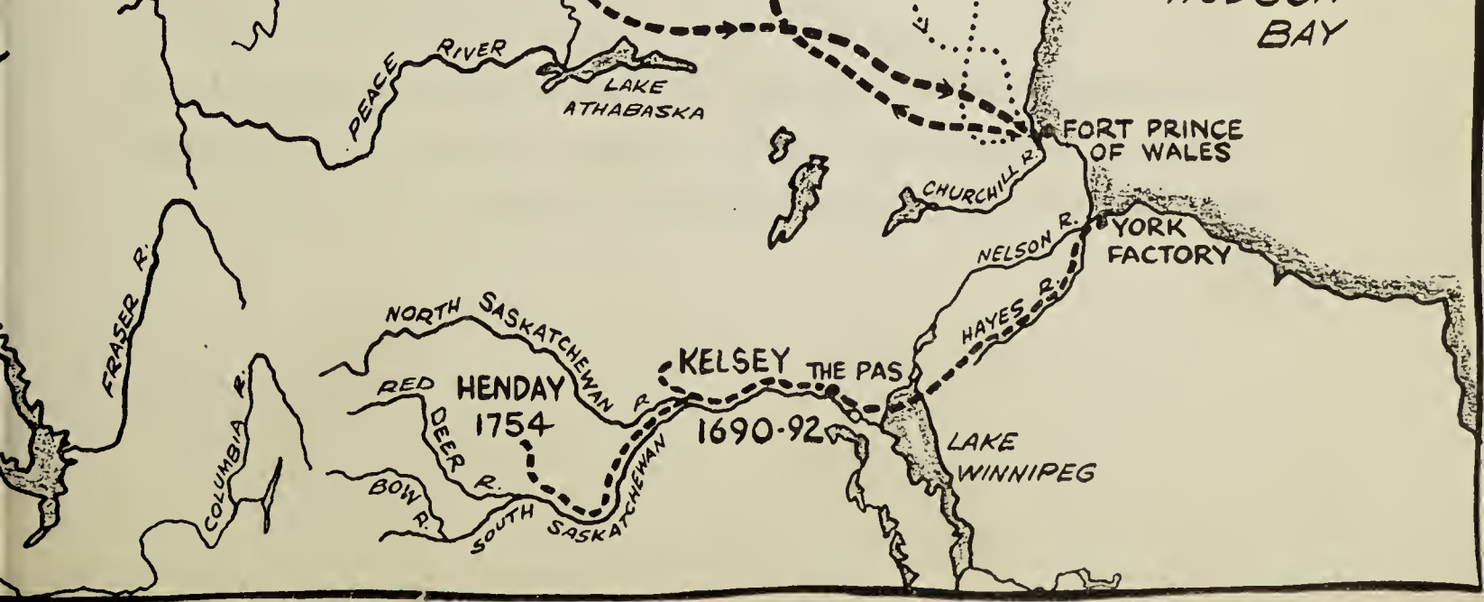
When the governor wanted to send some letters to the governor at Fort Severn, two hundred miles along the coast, he first entrusted them to four Indians who returned

without having delivered the letters. Then the governor, knowing that Kelsey was eager for adventure and that he was friendly with the Indians, sent Kelsey and an Indian boy, Thomas Savage, on this errand. At that time Kelsey was only seventeen years old. Within a month Kelsey and the Indian boy were back at York Factory with an answer to the letters.

The governors of the Company in England were pleased when they learned about this journey of Kelsey's. They wrote to the factor, suggesting that "the boy, Henry Kelsey, be sent to Churchill River with Thomas Savage because we are informed he is a very active lad delighting much in Indian company, being never better pleased than when he is travelling with them."

A few years later, in 1690, Kelsey was sent inland to the country of the Assiniboine Indians. He paddled up the Hayes River and travelled through parts of what we now know as Manitoba and Saskatchewan. Most explorers keep journals of their expeditions. They describe the country through which they travel, tell about the people

Trace the routes taken by Kelsey, Henday and Hearne



they see, their manners and customs, and sometimes they tell about the plants and animals. If they have surveying instruments they estimate their position. Often the early explorers knew much less about spelling and punctuation than they did about exploring and as a result some of their journals are very hard to read and understand.

Kelsey wrote part of his journal in rhyme. It begins:

"In sixteen hundred and ninety'th year
I set forth as plainly may appear."

Kelsey stayed for a time at a place which he called Deering's Point. In his journal he wrote:

"At Deering's Point after the frost
I set up there a certain cross."

No one knows for certain just where Deering's Point was. Historians have read the journal very carefully to try to find out. Many people believe it was where the city of The Pas now stands. If we could find the cross Kelsey set up we would know. But probably it fell down many years ago and has long since rotted away.

Two years after he set out, Henry Kelsey returned to York Factory. In all this time he had not seen another white man. He had lived alone with the Indians. He had feasted with them, smoked the pipe of peace with them, made speeches to them, given them presents and received in return gifts of furs. He had tried to persuade them to stop fighting with each other. He urged them to bring their furs to the forts on the Bay, and he promised that they would get good things in return.

Henry Kelsey was the first white man to travel in the Saskatchewan River district and to visit the Indians on the prairies. He was the first white man to see the great herds of buffalo on our northern plains.

La Vérendrye and the French traders and explorers who came after him had built trading-posts on the Red, the Assiniboine, and the Saskatchewan Rivers. The Indians of the western plains found it much easier to take their furs to the French posts on the rivers than to take them all the way to Hudson Bay. The Hudson's Bay Company realized that something must be done to protect their trade.

Anthony Henday set out from York Factory in 1754 with instructions "to explore the country inland and to endeavour to increase the Hudson's Bay Company's trade". When he came to the present site of The Pas on the Saskatchewan River he found that rival traders from Montreal had built a post there a few years earlier. In his journal, Henday told about this first encounter with the French traders.

"On my arrival," he wrote, "two Frenchmen came out when followed a great deal of bowing and scraping between us, and then we entered their fort, or more properly a hog sty for in short it is no better. They have neither victuals nor drink . . . . They are very lazy, not one stick of wood anigh their house. They asked me where the letter was. I told them I had no letter nor did not see any reason for one but that the country belonged to us as much as them. He made answer that it did not and that he would detain me there and send me home to France. I told him I knew France as well as he did, and was not afraid to go there more than himself, which made Monsieur a little cooler."

As he travelled across the prairies, Henday tried to persuade the Indians to bring their furs to the Company's posts on the Bay. Over and over again the Indians told



Henday watches the Blackfoot Indians hunting buffalo on the Prairies

him that it was easier to trade with the French who were near at hand than it was to undertake the long journey to the Bay.

Henday and his party spent the winter among the Blackfoot Indians, probably somewhere between the Red Deer River and the north branch of the Saskatchewan. These Indians rode horses, and hunted the buffalo very successfully with bows and arrows.

When Henday tried to convince the chief that his people should take furs to the Bay and trade them for the guns and other fine goods the Company had to offer, the chief said that his people could kill all the buffalo they needed with bows and arrows. They did not need fire-arms. He added that they were horsemen, not canoe men, and that they saw no advantage in making the long journey to the Bay. He also said that he had heard that "the tribes who

frequented the settlements were sometimes starved on their journey".

Within the year Henday returned to York Factory and gave an account of his trip to his superior officers. He said that if they wanted to keep the trade with the Indians on the plains they would have to establish posts there. He reported that the French were powerful rivals. "They have the advantage of us in every shape," he wrote, "and if they had Brazile tobacco, which they have not, would entirely cut off our trade." But the officials of the Hudson's Bay Company paid no attention to Henday's report.

SAMUEL HEARNE AND THE FAR-OFF METAL RIVER

The Indians who visited Fort Prince of Wales told the traders about a mountain of copper on the Far-Off Metal River which flowed to the north. They told such a good story that the factor at once wanted to send someone to find this rich treasure.

Samuel Hearne was chosen for the job. He was instructed to make a note of the position of any copper deposits, to prepare the way for trade with the Indians in the country through which he travelled, and to try to discover if there was a passage by water through the continent to the ocean of the West, the long-sought North-West Passage from Hudson Bay.

One day in November, 1769, with two white companions and six Indian guides, Samuel Hearne set out. The factor and all the men at the fort gathered to see the adventurers away, and honoured them with a salute of seven guns.

Before long Hearne began to realize that the Indians had no intention of guiding him to the Far-Off Metal River. After the explorers had travelled about two hundred miles west of the Bay, the Indians deserted them, laughing

as they made off with most of the supplies. In the winter cold, Hearne and his companions were left far from home with little food, without guides. Half-frozen, hungry, and disappointed, they struggled back to the fort.

Hearne was a man of courage. It was not long before he started out once more. This time he took with him only five Indian guides, having decided that the Englishmen had been too much trouble. This time there was no salute of seven guns, because the cannons on the ramparts were covered with snow. But the men at the fort gave Hearne and his guides three cheers to speed them on their way.

The explorers went west a short distance, then north. As spring came and the snow melted they had to abandon their snowshoes and sledges. They had to carry all their equipment on their backs. At times they ran out of food. They saw no caribou, no wild fowl that they could kill. For four days at one time and for seven at another they found nothing to eat. Hearne smoked his pipe to comfort him for lack of food, while the Indians chewed bits of their moccasins or any part of their deerskin clothing they could spare.

Later Hearne bought a canoe from an Indian in exchange for a knife which had cost only a penny in England. It may seem as if Hearne cheated the Indian but that is not so. The knife which cost only a penny in England was a very rare thing in those northern lands. Probably this Indian had never seen a knife with such a good blade. Everyone in his tribe would envy him his bargain.

This canoe cost Hearne a knife valued at one penny



One day when the party had been away nearly six months, an accident upset all Hearne's plans. He had a quadrant, an instrument with which he took observations as to his location. While he was eating his dinner that day, he left the quadrant standing on a nearby rock. A sharp gust of wind dashed it to the ground and it was broken. It was no use trying to go on. Once again the party had to give up their hopes of reaching the Far-Off Metal River. Once again they turned back toward Fort Prince of Wales.

Hearne and his men were almost exhausted when they had the good fortune to meet Chief Matonabbee, an Indian who had visited the Bay. He gave Hearne food and warm deer-skins, and travelled back to Fort Prince of Wales with him. They reached the fort on November 25th, 1770. Hearne had been away for nine months, but he had not found the Far-Off Metal River.

He wanted to try a third time. His good friend, Chief Matonabbee, said he would be his guide. In less than two weeks they set out. On their way they were joined by a large party of Matonabbee's tribe, including women and children. Matonabbee said that Hearne's previous failures had been because he had no women in his party. "Women," said the Indian chief, "are made for labour. One of them can carry or haul as much as two men can do; they pitch our tents, make or mend our clothing, and in fact there is no such thing as travelling in this country for any length of time without their assistance. Women, though they do everything, are maintained at trifling expense, for, as they always stand cooks, the very licking of their fingers in scarce times is sufficient for their subsistence."



Hearne was worried because the Indians' attitude toward the Eskimos would upset his plans for exploring the country

As they went on their way other bands of Indians joined them, planning to attack their ancient enemies, the Eskimos. Hearne tried to persuade them that this was an exploring party, not a war-party, but he was not successful. As he had been instructed to keep on good terms with the Indians, he did not dare argue too much.

Before long the travellers reached the river now known as the Coppermine. As they went down the river towards the village of the Eskimos, the Indians prepared for battle. At dawn they attacked the little village. The Eskimos were completely surprised and everyone was slaughtered. This spot on the Coppermine River is still known as Bloody Falls.

Hearne went eight miles farther down the river to its mouth. He built a pile of stones to show that he had been there, and took possession of the country in the name of the Hudson's Bay Company.

So far no trace of the mountains of copper had been seen. As the party made its way up the river, the Indians took Hearne to the place where they had said one could pick up copper as easily as pebbles at Churchill. But they found only a few splinters of copper and one larger piece weighing about four pounds. Over two and a half years after he had first set out to find the Far-Off Metal River, Hearne returned to Fort Prince of Wales, carrying this one piece of copper. The Hudson's Bay Company gave it to the British Museum, where it can be seen to-day.

There is copper in that country, east of Great Bear Lake. We know that to-day. It would be mined if it were not so far from railways, or if ships could go in there more easily, or if there were a great demand for copper. The men who sent Hearne out had dreamed of great masses of copper, near the sea, where a post could be established. They had dreamed of ships sailing to England with their holds filled with rich copper ore. This dream vanished when Hearne made his report.

What Hearne had proved by his expeditions is important. He had proved that land extended far to the north of the mouth of the Churchill River. He had found that much of this country was a frozen waste. He had stood upon the barren shores of the Arctic. He made it clear that a man of courage and endurance could travel through those barren lands, live off the country, and return to tell the tale. He ended his journal by saying that his journey "had put an end to all disputes concerning a North West Passage through Hudson Bay."

Hearne finds copper on the Coppermine River



25. Sailors on the West Coast and in the Arctic

"For we are bound where mariner has not yet dared to go
And we will risk the ship, ourselves and all."

WALT WHITMAN: *Passage to India*

RUSSIANS ON THE PACIFIC COAST OF NORTH AMERICA

Peter the Great of Russia thought that his country should have a share in the new lands. France and England controlled the eastern part of North America. Spain and Portugal claimed Central and South America. Peter decided that Russia should explore the northern Pacific in the hope of finding Gama Land, a country which the map-makers believed was to be found in the Pacific between Asia and America.

In 1725 Peter chose a Dane, Vitus Bering, to head the exploration. It was an enormous undertaking. First the explorers had to go from St. Petersburg (now Leningrad) six thousand miles across Russia and Siberia to Kamchatka on the Pacific coast. Their journey took them over trackless deserts, across deep rivers, over high mountains. Sometimes they had to stop to build rafts to carry them across the great rivers. It took them three years to reach Kamchatka. There they built ships and sailed out into the Pacific. They went far enough north to discover that America and Asia are separated by a strait, to-day called Bering Strait.

On a second expedition Bering was accompanied by a large party of botanists, artists, and learned men who were to report on their findings in the new land. When they reached Kamchatka, they built a fort and then they built two ships for the voyage—the *St. Peter* and the *St. Paul.* Bering was in charge of the *St. Peter*, and his lieutenant Chirikoff was in charge of the *St. Paul.* Not long after



The scientists in Bering's expeditions risk the lives of the ship's crew to explore the new land

they set out, the two ships were separated in a storm. Neither of them found Gama Land, for the good reason that it does not exist.

Chirikoff's ship sailed along the coast north of the 55th parallel of north latitude and returned home to Kamchatka in safety. Bering, against his own wishes but at the command of the scientists, wasted time waiting for Chirikoff. Then he sailed south to look for Gama Land. When provisions and water were low he turned north. Bering himself and many of the crew were mortally ill from scurvy when at last they sighted land near Mt. St. Elias. The scientists landed and began to explore. The commander was worried, for he knew they were far from home, almost out of provisions, and in a dangerous place. He insisted on starting for home.

The *St. Peter* followed the shore-line, and then the Aleutian Islands, which are strung out from Alaska towards Asia. Bering urged his companions to press for home, but they voted to land on a small island, known to-day as Bering's Island. Fortunately there was enough animal life on the island to provide them with plenty of food and warm clothing. Since there was no timber for building shelters, the adventurers had to live in pits, the walls of which they lined with deep layers of moss to keep them warm during the long cold winter. Thirty-one of the crew, including Bering himself, died before that winter was over.

During a gale, the *St. Peter* was driven on shore and wrecked. In the spring of 1742, the survivors built a raft and rigged up oars and a sail of skins. To cross the stormy Pacific on a raft was a bold and hazardous venture, but at last they succeeded in finding their way back to Kamchatka.

Chinese merchants happened to be at Kamchatka at that time to buy furs. They offered high prices for the otter skins the Russians were wearing. When the Russians learned that the furs were of great value, they realized that even though they had not found Gama Land they had found something worth while, a source of great new wealth.

If Bering's advice had been heeded, very likely the *St. Peter* would not have been wrecked





The Eskimos are forced by the Russians to hunt sea-otter in their Kayaks regardless of the stormy weather

Traders from Russia began to make many voyages from Kamchatka to the Aleutian Islands and to the coast of Alaska. These traders treated the Indians very cruelly. They bribed and bullied the Aleutians to do their hunting for them, forcing the unfortunate Indians to go out in their little kayaks to spear the sea-otter no matter how stormy the seas. It was dangerous work. Thousands of the Aleutians perished, either in the hunt, or in fights with the Russians. The traders used to say, "God is in Heaven and the Czar is far away."

But the Czar was not so far away. He heard about the crimes that the traders had committed, and he decided that no one should be allowed to trade with the Indians without a licence. A governor was sent to see that justice was done.

The Russians controlled Alaska and the Aleutian Islands until they sold them to the United States in 1867 for $7,000,000. The history of British Columbia, and indeed the whole of Canada, might have been different had the Russians remained in Alaska.

Two hundred thousand sea-otters were taken by the Russians in half a century. The traders made a quick fortune, but they were too greedy for profits. Sea-otters soon became scarce and to-day there are only a few where once there were thousands.

Other animals would have disappeared in the same way if laws had not been passed to protect them. Trappers and hunters are now allowed to kill only a certain number of beaver, or deer, or moose each year. There is only a short season each year in which hunters are allowed to shoot wild ducks and geese, and prairie-chickens. This protection of the wild life we call "conservation". That means that we are trying to save, or conserve, our natural resources so that Canada will continue to have game for the hunters of the future.

NEW INTEREST IN THE SEARCH FOR THE NORTH-WEST PASSAGE

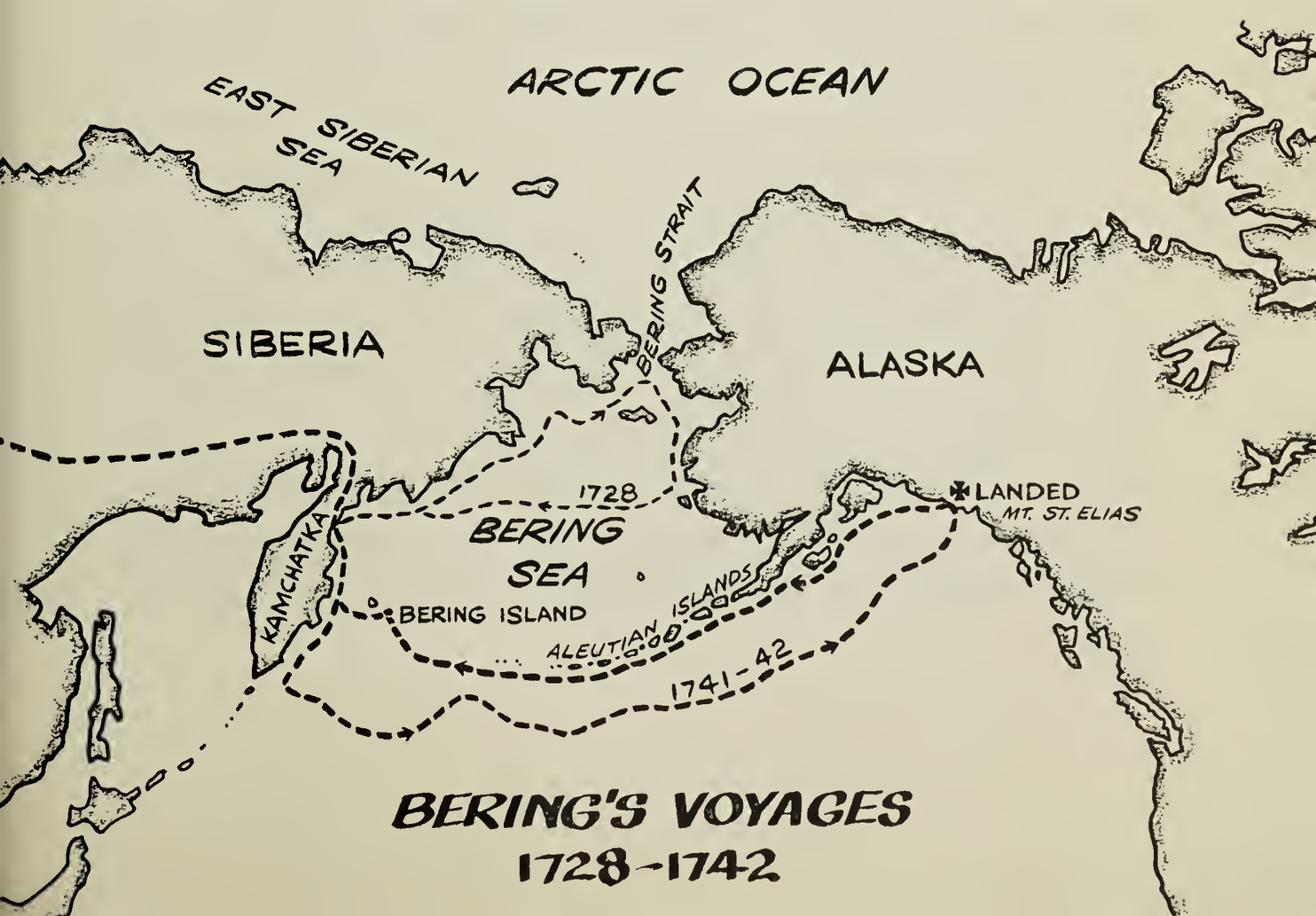
Bering had proved that the Gama Land, the great land between Asia and America, which geographers had marked on their maps, did not exist. He had also shown that there was a strait between Asia and America. News of Bering Strait revived the search for the North-West Passage.

We know to-day that there is a North-West Passage. It is possible to go by ship north of this continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Roald Amundsen, a bold Norwegian explorer, made his way through in a three-year voyage, 1903-1906. In 1940-1942, a party of Royal Canadian Mounted Police, under the command of Sergeant Henry Larsen, took the schooner *St. Roch* through from the Pacific to the Atlantic. It is possible to make this passage, but icebergs and ice-fields make the journey slow and dangerous. As a trade route, the

long-sought North-West Passage is useless. Within the last century transcontinental railways, airways, and the Panama Canal have provided satisfactory means of carrying goods and passengers from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

But in the eighteenth century railways and airplanes had not been invented. No one dreamed of such a great engineering feat as the building of a canal to connect the two oceans. The search for the North-West Passage, the water route to the Pacific, was the dream which had beckoned Frobisher, Davis, Hudson, Cartier, Champlain, Nicolet, La Vérendrye, and Hearne.

There were people in England who demanded that the Hudson's Bay Company should find a North-West Passage or give up its charter. Parliament offered a reward of £20,000 to anyone who discovered a northern route to the Pacific. Explorers had tried to find the passage in expeditions from the east by land and by sea. The British Government sent Captain James Cook out to try to discover it from the west.



BERING'S VOYAGES
1728-1742

A Greek pilot, named Juan de Fuca, who had sailed with the Spanish, had told of a strait leading from the Pacific to the Arctic through a great tree-covered land. Cook was told to seek this strait. There is a strait named after the Greek pilot, but it does not connect the Pacific and the Arctic. It is the strait which separates the southern end of Vancouver Island from the mainland.

Cook sailed from England in 1776. Two years later he sighted a cape, at the entrance of the Strait of Juan de Fuca. He named it Cape Flattery. Unfortunately he was driven off shore by a gale and did not see the opening of the strait. He sailed up the west coast of Vancouver Island and landed at Nootka, where he found the Indians friendly and willing to trade. He sailed up past the Queen Charlotte Islands and along the coast, exploring many inlets and bays but finding no passage to Hudson Bay. A wall of ice stopped him when he tried to pass through Bering Strait. He visited the Aleutian Islands where he found the Russians carrying on a thriving fur trade. On his return voyage, Cook was killed by the natives of the Sandwich Islands who did not like the way the white men treated them.

SPAIN ATTEMPTS TO CLAIM MORE TERRITORY

Spain considered that, by right of her early discoveries and her possession of Mexico and southern California, the Southern Pacific should be under Spanish control. Russia had established claims in the far north. Were these two nations to divide the rich territory of the Pacific coast between them? Explorers came from England, Canada, and the United States to put in their claims.

Soon the Spaniards and the English came into conflict. Spanish explorers claimed Vancouver Island, but two English traders had established a fort at Nootka on the west coast of the island in 1778. While the English traders were away, Spaniards sailed into the Nootka harbour, tore down the Englishmen's fort and built one of their own.

England would not submit to Spain's destruction of the forts her captains had established. England had been mistress of the seas since the defeat of the Spanish Armada and would accept no insults, especially from Spain. For a time it looked as if there might be war, but it was decided that the Spaniards should restore the land and the fort and pay for the damage.

CAPTAIN VANCOUVER

An expedition under Captain George Vancouver was sent out from England to receive the surrender of the property from Spain. He was also instructed to make maps of the coast from California to the Russian possessions at Sitka.

In 1792 Vancouver sailed up the west coast. A gale drove him off shore, and as a result he missed discovering the mouth of the Columbia River. He was sailing through the Strait of Juan de Fuca when he met an American ship, the *Columbia*, commanded by Captain Gray. Gray announced that he had discovered the Great River to the West, and had named it the Columbia after his ship.

Vancouver sailed between Vancouver Island and the mainland, but he missed the mouth of the Fraser because of thick fog. He sailed round Vancouver Island and met the Spanish representatives at Nootka. One of his lieutenants travelled some distance up the Columbia River.



American and English explorers meet off the coast of western Canada

Captain Vancouver himself sailed north along the coast, but he found no passage from the Pacific to the Arctic.

Captain Vancouver did not win the £20,000 which the British Government had offered, but his name is remembered. Vancouver Island and the busy city of Vancouver both bear his name.

THE TRAGIC FATE OF SIR JOHN FRANKLIN

Martin Frobisher, John Davis, and Henry Hudson had tried to find the North-West Passage by sailing north of America. Cartier, Champlain, La Salle, and La Vérendrye had hoped to find a waterway through the heart of the continent. Hearne had looked for a passage from Hudson Bay. Cook and Vancouver had sought the passage from the west.

In 1845 Sir John Franklin set out from England with still another expedition to seek the North-West Passage. Explorers knew by this time that this passage would be of no use for trade. They were seeking to add to the world's knowledge of science and geography. Sir John had two ships of the British navy, a crew of one hundred and twenty-eight men, and provisions for three years.

Franklin's ships were seen by the crew of a whaling vessel in Baffin Bay in July, 1845. Months and years passed. No further word came of Sir John Franklin or his ships.

Ship after ship went out in search of him. Lady Franklin would not give up hope that some of the party might still be alive in the frozen north. Ships went into the Arctic from the east by way of Davis Strait and Baffin Bay. Ships went in from the west through Bering Strait. Search parties paddled down the rivers of the north. Hardy men trudged overland to look for the lost explorers.

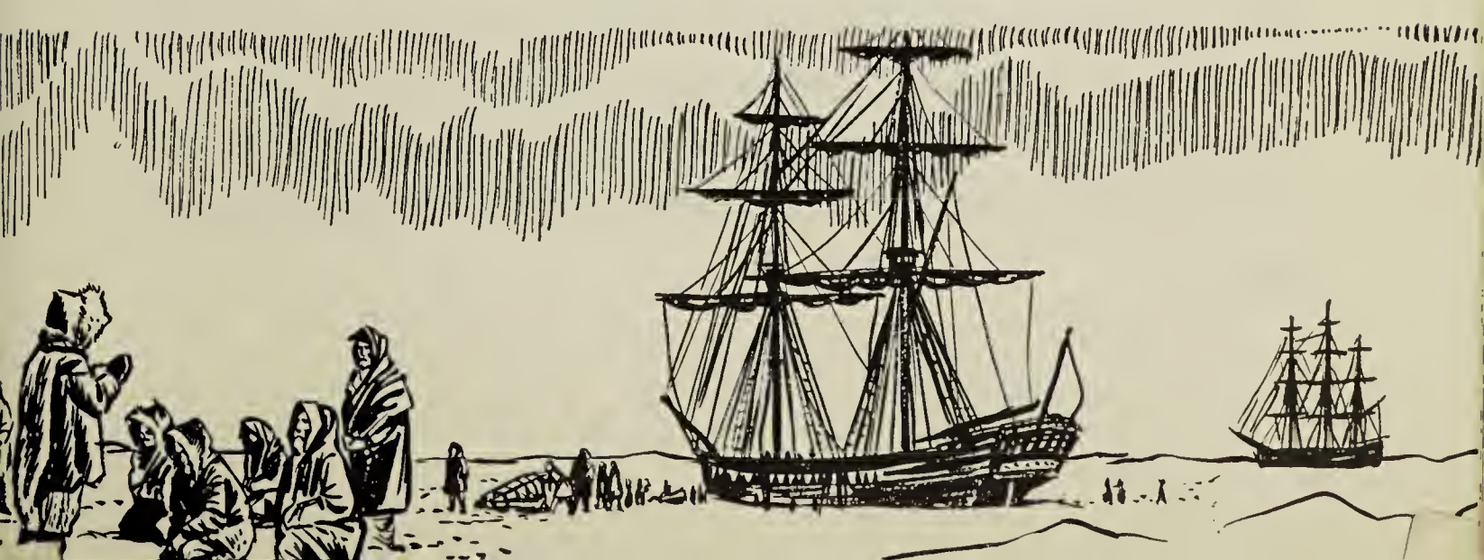
The British Government offered a reward of £10,000 to anyone who would bring news of the fate of Franklin and his men. In 1854 Dr. John Rae of the Hudson's Bay Company learned from the Eskimos the sad fate of the missing men. All had died of cold or starvation.

The expeditions which went to look for Franklin and his men did not find them, but in the course of their search, they succeeded in accomplishing Sir John Franklin's goal. They mapped the whole of the Arctic coast.

One search party which had entered from Bering Strait was forced to abandon its ship. The members of this party were later picked up and taken home in a ship which had entered the Arctic from the east. These men were the first to travel through the North-West Passage.

These expeditions proved that a passage existed north of America. They also proved beyond all doubt that it was far too difficult and dangerous to be used for trade.

Franklin's ship, the *Erebus*, caught in the ice



26. The Lords of the Lakes and the Forests

"Northwesters, Company men, Free-traders, X.Y.'s,
McTavishes, MacKenzies, McDonalds, and McGillivrays
With packets of blanket cloth, duffel, and spirit dregs,
Steel knives, flint-locks, bears' grease, and powder kegs."
Author Unknown.

Even before the end of the French period in Canada, La Vérendrye and the fur-traders who followed after him had dotted the western prairies with fur-trading posts. This country had all been granted by Charles II to the Hudson's Bay Company. But, as we have seen, the Hudson's Bay Company had been content to build trading-posts on the Bay. In the first century of the existence of the Company, only Kelsey and Henday had ventured inland to extend the fur trade, and only Henday had met any French traders competing with the English for the furs.

TRADERS FROM MONTREAL COME TO COMPETE WITH THE HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY

After Canada was ceded to Britain, English and American traders began to press farther and farther into the west in search of furs. Before long the Hudson's Bay Company found that fewer furs were being brought to the Bay. The Indians saw no reason to make the long trip to the Bay when there were traders close at hand.

In 1772 Thomas and Joseph Frobisher, two traders from Montreal, built a log fort on the Saskatchewan River. There they were able to stop the Indians who were going down to Hudson Bay by way of the Churchill River. At last the governors of the Hudson's Bay Company saw that they, too, would have to build posts in the interior. In 1774 Samuel Hearne built Fort Cumberland less than half a mile from the Frobishers' fort.

The building of these two trading-posts began a half century of conflict between the traders from Hudson Bay and the traders from Montreal—a conflict in which blood was sometimes spilt. Once started on a building programme, the Hudson's Bay Company established a network of posts across the plains. But the Montreal traders were too strong and too numerous to be checked. Competition was keen between different groups of traders. Some of them, eager for quick profits, were treating the Indians unfairly. Indians who had been treated unjustly by one white man might take vengeance on the next they met. Fearing that the fur trade might be ruined by traders who cared only for a quick profit, the leaders of the Montreal groups decided to join forces and control the trade by forming the North West Company.

In the struggle against the Hudson's Bay Company for furs, the Nor'westers, as they were called, easily held their own. From their headquarters at Grand Portage, now known as Fort William, they sent traders far and wide.

The struggle between the two companies had important results. In the search for new sources of fur trade, the rival traders kept pushing farther and farther west, establishing posts in the heart of the Indian country. Eventually, daring men pierced the barrier of the Rockies and then descended the rivers of the Pacific slope to the waters of the Western Sea which so many courageous explorers had sought in vain. It was the fur-traders, following where Kelsey, La Vérendrye, and Henday had led, who drew the map of western Canada.

Most of the fur-traders were interested in new territory only because it promised rich profits in the fur trade.

But there were some who were at heart explorers. The most notable of the explorers in the service of the Nor'-westers were Alexander Mackenzie, Simon Fraser, and David Thompson.

ALEXANDER MACKENZIE AND THE RIVER DISAPPOINTMENT

Alexander Mackenzie, a young Scot in charge of the Nor'westers' post, Fort Chipewyan, on Lake Athabasca, longed to solve some of the mysteries of the land stretching to the north and west. He dreamed that he might find the long-sought North-West Passage to the Western Sea.

On June 3rd, 1789, he set out from Fort Chipewyan, with four French-Canadian voyageurs and a few Indians. They crossed Lake Athabasca to Slave River and followed the river down to Slave Lake. When they reached the lake, it was still covered with ice, except for a narrow strip of open water along the shore. After searching for nearly three weeks along the shore, they found the outlet they were seeking and started their journey down the river we know now as the Mackenzie.

The explorer was disappointed that the river flowed north, for he had hoped to find one flowing west. He named it the River Disappointment. But he did not turn back. He decided to find out, if he could, where it emptied into the ocean.

Mackenzie met Indians who tried to persuade him not to go any farther north. He wrote in his journal that the Indians told him "it would require several weeks to get to the sea, and that old age would come upon us before the period of our return", and they warned him that he would meet "monsters of such horrid shapes and destructive powers as could exist only in their wild imaginations".

Mackenzie promised one of the Indians a kettle, an axe, and a knife if he would go with him. That was high pay, for the Indians valued such rare articles very greatly. It was clear that the Indians really believed in the horrors to be encountered.

"Our new friend," Mackenzie wrote, "was desired to prepare himself for his departure, which he would have declined, but as none of his friends would take his place, we may be said, after the delay of an hour, to have compelled him to embark." Their guide did not last long. He ran away four days later during a thunderstorm.

Next day the party met a band of roving Indians and engaged a new guide who told them they could reach the sea in ten days. Provisions were running low, and this guide, too, was obviously terrified both of Eskimos and the nameless horrors of the north. The voyageurs began to urge Mackenzie to turn back. He persuaded them to go on for another week.

On July 12th the party camped on a small island. Mackenzie climbed up to its highest point, and, looking out to the west, he saw a broad field of ice. He had reached the Arctic Ocean, but he did not realize it until later when the tide rose in the river, threatening to swamp their tents and baggage.

Mackenzie and his men stayed on the coast three days. One day they saw some whales in the open water not far from shore. In his journal Mackenzie wrote, "We embarked in pursuit of them . . . It was a very fortunate circumstance that we failed in our attempts to overtake them, as one stroke from the tail of one of these enormous fish would have dashed the canoe to pieces."

Mackenzie and his men hunt whales in the Arctic Ocean



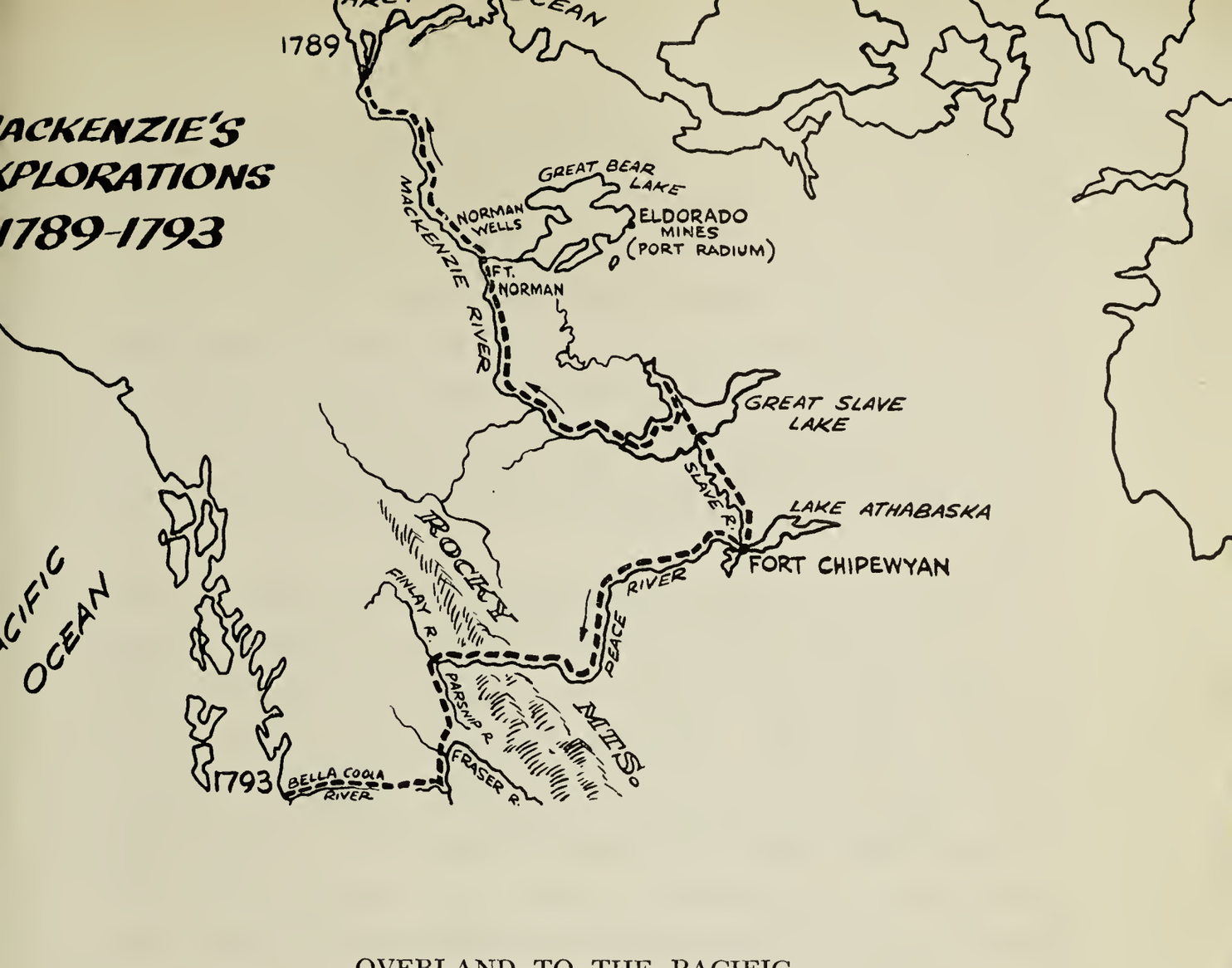
On July 14th Mackenzie put up a post on the island, marking on it the latitude, his name, the number of his companions, and the time they remained there. When they started back, they had enough food for only twelve days. Fortunately, after they passed the mouth of the Great Bear River, they found plenty of berries, and as they went farther south wild fowl were plentiful.

At one place Mackenzie saw coal smouldering. At another, he saw oil oozing from the rocks. This must have been at Norman Wells. The first oil well was drilled there in 1920, and many more have been drilled since that time. A pipe-line from Norman Wells carried oil to the Alaska Highway during the war.

This north country is now known to be rich in minerals. Silver, radium, and uranium have been discovered near Great Bear Lake. Uranium is a very important mineral to-day because it is used in producing atomic energy. The largest mine in this area is the Eldorado on Great Bear Lake.

Mackenzie's trip back to Fort Chipewyan was a difficult one. Sometimes there was a wind, and the travellers could put up sails and sail up the river. But more often they could not paddle against the swift current. Then they had to rig up tow-lines and pull the canoes up-stream against the current. On September 12th, after an absence of one hundred and two days, they returned to Fort Chipewyan.

Travel is still difficult in that northern country. Great Bear Lake is eight hundred miles from the nearest railway. Freight has to go down the river during the summer by boat—a trip of two or three weeks. It is true that to-day aeroplanes are able to make the trip into Great Bear Lake in less than a day, but aeroplane travel is expensive, and many of the supplies still go in by the slow freight route.



OVERLAND TO THE PACIFIC

Mackenzie was not satisfied. He still dreamed of a great river flowing west. Requesting permission for leave of absence from his post, he went to England to study astronomy and surveying in preparation for another expedition.

In 1792 he returned to Fort Chipewyan and in October he set out on his second great voyage of discovery. He went up the Peace River and spent the winter in a fort which he built beyond the junction of the Peace and the Smoky. In the spring, he set out again. It was not easy. He encountered whirling rapids at what is now called Rocky Mountain Portage. For nine miles, he and his men cut their way through forest.

When the explorers came to where the Finlay and Parsnip Rivers unite to form the Peace River, they met

Indians who told them of a great river beyond the mountains, a river that flowed towards the noonday sun. They told of white men who wore armour, of huge canoes with sails like clouds which sailed upon the "bitter waters", as they called the Pacific Ocean. Mackenzie knew then that he must be near the coast. The Indians must have seen or heard of some of the ships in which the Russians or the Spanish or the English had sailed along the Pacific coast.

Mackenzie and his men struggled up the Parsnip River to the small lake from which it flowed. A short portage brought them to a second small lake from which a river flowed to the west. They had crossed the Great Divide, the height of land which separates the rivers flowing to the north and east from those flowing to the west. When you cross the mountains to-day, you can see the Great Divide marked with signposts. You can see water flowing in the two directions from the high point of land.

Now they were on the Bad River, and bad it was for canoes. Discouraged by the dangers they had faced, the men were ready to turn back, but Mackenzie urged them on till they reached the Fraser River. He was disappointed to find that it flowed to the south.

In a few days the explorers met Indians who told them that terrible rapids barred their way to the sea on this river. The Indians advised them to go back up the Fraser to the Blackwater, and to follow it to its source. There they would find an Indian trail across the mountains to another river, the Bella Coola, which would take them to the sea.

When he was visiting an Indian camp in the Blackwater country, Mackenzie saw Indian children with strange ornaments in their ears. The ornaments were

coins. One was an English halfpenny; another was a State of Massachusetts halfpenny dated 1787. How had those pennies come there? White traders must have been in this country or on the coast not long before Mackenzie arrived.

At last Mackenzie reached the Pacific. His party stayed there for three days in spite of threats from unfriendly Indians, but Mackenzie would not leave until he had determined the latitude with his instruments. With a mixture of vermilion and grease he wrote in large letters upon a great stone, ALEXANDER MACKENZIE FROM CANADA, BY LAND, THE TWENTY-SECOND OF JULY, ONE THOUSAND SEVEN HUNDRED AND NINETY-THREE. This inscription is now chiselled in the stone, to mark the spot where this bold explorer left his record.

Mackenzie was again disappointed. He had not found an easy route to the Western Sea, but he had travelled through hundreds of miles of country where no white man had set foot before. He was the first white man to cross North America to the Pacific Ocean. He wrote an account of his explorations which was published in 1801. Many people read it and became interested in the new land. Among the readers was Thomas Douglas, Lord Selkirk, who was inspired by Mackenzie's description of the Red River Valley to found a colony there.

Today, near the City of Vancouver, you can see this rock with the inscription chiselled on it



The Montreal partners of the North West Company were not, at first, very much interested in Mackenzie's explorations. They made it quite clear that his proper business was looking after the fur trade. When Mackenzie reported that he had seen many sea-otters off the Pacific coast, the Nor'westers saw that it might be profitable to establish posts in the territory west of the Rockies. They knew that Russian traders were on the coast and that American traders were headed that way.

The Nor'westers realized that if they wanted to take control of the Columbia River district, there was no time to lose. Captain Vancouver and Captain Gray had reported their discovery of the mouth of a broad, navigable river flowing into the Pacific, which Gray had named the Columbia. They knew where it flowed into the sea, but no explorer had travelled far along it. No one knew where its source was. The North West Company wanted to explore that river, and to establish trading-posts on it.

Rivers were the natural routes of travel for the traders and for the Indians who brought furs to them. If the North West Company could find the upper waters of the river, they believed they could build up a thriving trade in furs west of the Rockies. Their cargoes could be taken down the river to the Pacific and shipped to Europe by way of the Cape Horn route round the tip of South America. The partners looked for a man they could send out to explore this territory.

SIMON FRASER

An experienced trader, Simon Fraser, a man known to possess great courage and endurance, was sent out to find the upper waters of the Columbia and to establish posts



This is a sample of what men dared to explore and to map our great country

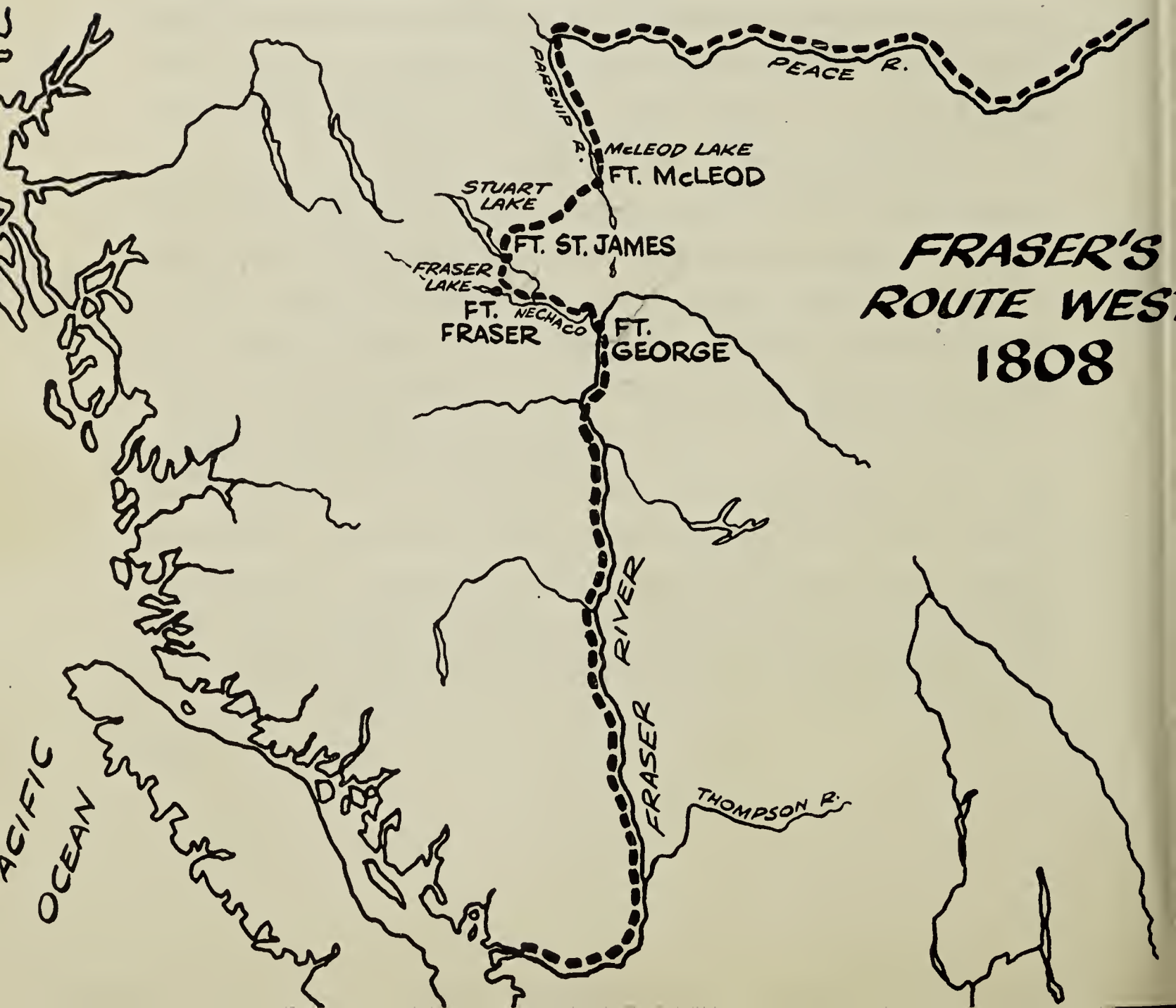
for the Nor'westers in the country west of the Rockies. In 1805 he set out, following Mackenzie's route up the Peace River. At Rocky Mountain Portage he established his first trading-post. After he crossed the Rockies he built Fort McLeod on McLeod Lake, the first trading-post on the mainland of what is now the province of British Columbia. Then he built Fort St. James on Stuart Lake, Fort Fraser on Fraser Lake, and Fort George at the junction of the Fraser and the Nechaco Rivers.

In May, 1808, Simon Fraser with his men left Fort George to begin his exploration of the swift-flowing river which he believed was the Columbia. We know that it was not the Columbia but the Fraser, which empties into the ocean many miles north of the mouth of the Columbia.

To-day when we see that river and when we look at the steep mountain walls that enclose it, we wonder how Fraser and his men ever made the journey. Dangerous rapids threatened to swamp their canoes. Nevertheless, the explorers had to shoot the rapids because they could not possibly carry their canoes up the steep cliffs.

Before Fraser and his men had gone very far, the river became even more difficult. Now they dared not risk the rapids. They had to abandon their canoes, and climb up the overhanging cliffs on frail ladders built of ropes and branches. The Indians, who had built these ladders, did not find them difficult because they were used to them. But the white men had never tried climbing along a steep rock wall and they found it a very terrifying experience. One false step would have meant death in the raging torrent below.

After the worst of the rapids had been passed, the explorers persuaded the Indians to sell them some rough boats made from hollowed logs. When they realized that the river was flowing due west, they knew that, after all their desperate struggle, they had not found the river they had been instructed to explore. Fraser knew that they were then in latitude 49° and that the Columbia reached the sea in latitude 46°.



Bitterly disappointed, the little party started their return trip. For a second time they had to undergo the hardships, the dangers and the fears of the terrible journey.

Fraser had failed to find the upper waters of the Columbia. However, he had opened up new country for the fur trade and he had established trading-posts. He had proved that there was a second great river flowing westward through the mountains to the Pacific, and he had followed that river, through great difficulties and dangers, to the coast. To-day this river is called the Fraser after the brave trader who first explored its turbulent course.

DAVID THOMPSON, MAP-MAKER AND EXPLORER

David Thompson was an orphan boy of London who was taken from school at the age of fourteen and apprenticed to the Hudson's Bay Company. At school his favourite subjects had been mathematics and geography. When he was in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company, his superior officers found that he was unusually good at map-making and surveying. He longed to travel and explore. But the directors of the Company were not really interested in exploration. Their interest was in the fur trade.

Thompson, disappointed that he was not going to have a chance to work at the surveying and the map-making which he enjoyed, decided to leave the Hudson's Bay Company and to try to get a job with the North West Company. He tramped seventy miles to the nearest North West post to offer his services.

This was in 1797. At that time the Nor'westers were in difficulty. By the treaty which was drawn up at the close of the American Revolution, the British had agreed to a boundary which left many of their trading-posts in American territory. The boundary was to run through the



Map-making was one of the important jobs of the explorer, David Thompson

middle of Lake Ontario, Lake Erie, Lake Huron, and Lake Superior and by a chain of lakes and rivers to the northwestern point of the Lake of the Woods and thence due west to the Mississippi. The men who drew up the treaty did not know that a line due west from the Lake of the Woods would not meet the Mississippi.

The Nor'westers realized that they would lose their posts at Detroit, Niagara, Michilimackinac, and Green Bay, and they feared that they would lose Grand Portage, the headquarters of their western trade. The boundary was not settled west of the Lake of the Woods, but it was expected that it would be the 49th parallel. It became very important to the traders to find out just where the 49th parallel was.

David Thompson was the man the Nor'westers needed. He surveyed the territory from the Assiniboine to the Missouri, and from Lake Superior to the Saskatchewan, and made careful and accurate maps of the district.

Then the North West Company sent Thompson into the country west of the Rocky Mountains. He was eager to explore and map this new and fascinating territory. But he could not go as fast as he wanted because he had to establish fur-trading posts as he went. The North West Company was interested in surveying, map-making, and exploration only if it helped to build up the fur trade.

In 1807 Thompson was on one of the rivers which flow into the Columbia. He spent the next four years exploring and mapping the upper waters of the Columbia and its branches.

The Nor'westers knew that the Americans were planning to build a post at the mouth of the Columbia. They had sent Fraser to establish posts on the Columbia, but he had failed to find it. Now they decided to send Thompson. In 1811 they told him to find the Columbia and follow it to its mouth. This was Thompson's great opportunity to do the kind of exploring he had longed for. When he was on the upper waters of the Columbia, he wrote in his journal, "May God in His mercy give me to see where its waters flow into the ocean, and to return in safety."

The Columbia River was a very baffling river. From its source it flows north for many miles, and several of its branches also flow north for a long distance. Thompson was seeking a river which flowed west and south. At last, after many difficulties, Thompson came out on the broad waters of the Columbia, the river Fraser had sought in vain. Thompson travelled down the river to its mouth. To his surprise and disappointment he found a fort already established there, Fort Astoria, belonging to the Pacific Fur Company of New York. It had been built just two months before he arrived.

Thompson was too late to claim the site for the North West Company. But before he returned to headquarters he had explored every foot of the river from its source to its mouth, the whole eleven hundred and fifty miles.

The exploration of the Columbia was an important achievement, but it was not Thompson's greatest claim to fame. After his last trip of exploration he made a complete map of the West for the North West Company, on which all the seventy-eight posts belonging to the Com-

pany were marked. It was a good map, the first good map of the West. Surveyors and geographers who examine it to-day wonder at the patience and skill and knowledge which David Thompson displayed in making it.

THE FORTY-NINTH PARALLEL IS THE BOUNDARY

The North West Company bought Fort Astoria from the Pacific Fur Company. Later the Hudson's Bay Company built a fort on the Columbia, some distance up the river. American traders, too, were competing for the trade.

In 1846, by the Treaty of Oregon, the boundary between British Columbia and the United States west of the Rocky Mountains was set at the 49th parallel. Henceforth the lower valley of the Columbia belonged to the United States.

This was a fair decision. It was an American, Captain Gray, who first claimed the territory when he sailed up the coast in 1792, just a few months before Vancouver arrived there. It was an American exploring party under Lewis and Clark that first reached the mouth of the Columbia by an overland route in 1805, six years before Thompson came down from the upper country. It was an American company that established the first fort near the mouth of the river in 1811. The settlers who came out to take up land and make their homes there were almost all Americans.

Great Britain kept the rich territory north of the 49th parallel, now known as British Columbia.

UNION OF THE TWO GREAT COMPANIES

The competition between the Hudson's Bay men and the Nor'westers for many years was bitter and intense. Where the two companies had posts close together, the rivalry sometimes led to open fighting and to bloodshed.

The cut-throat competition between the two companies threatened to ruin the fur trade, just as the competition of smaller companies had threatened it before the forming of the North West Company. The Indians wanted rum and whisky. Drunken Indians caused a lot of trouble at the posts. Moreover, the Indians who traded their furs for liquor were not likely to remain good hunters. As long as the two companies were competing there could be no hope of reducing the sale of liquor to the Indians.

In time the wiser partners in both companies saw that it would be sensible to unite the two companies. In 1821 the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Company united under the name of the Hudson's Bay Company. The great fur-trading company continued to rule the western country until in 1869 it surrendered to the Dominion of Canada its right to control the trade and to govern its vast territory. In return the Company received a million and a half dollars and large grants of land.

To-day the Hudson's Bay Company is still a great fur-trading company. Scattered all through the less settled parts of the Dominion are Hudson's Bay Company posts

What a contrast between an early trading-post of the Hudson's Bay Company and one of their modern department stores!



to which trappers and hunters, white, Indian, and Eskimo, bring their furs. In addition, the Company has a chain of department stores where goods of all kinds are handled.

"The lords of the lakes and the forests", as the Nor'-westers called themselves, are all passed away. Over a century and a quarter has gone by since the North West Company was a part of the life of western Canada. But the memory of such path-finders as Alexander Mackenzie, Simon Fraser, and David Thompson is still green. Their achievements are written forever on the map of the Dominion of Canada.

27. The Silver Chief

"I hear the tread of pioneers,
Of nations yet to be;
The first low wash of waves where soon
Shall roll a human sea."

JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER: *On Receiving an Eagle's Quill from Lake Superior*

LORD SELKIRK DECIDES TO FOUND A COLONY ON THE RED RIVER

Early in the nineteenth century many an unhappy family of the Highlands of Scotland was being driven off its little farm in order that the landlords might make a greater profit by raising sheep. Thomas Douglas, Earl of Selkirk, came to the conclusion that the best way to help these dispossessed people was to help them to find new homes in the colonies. One day he read in Alexander Mackenzie's *Voyages*:

"The country on either side of the Red River consists of plains covered with herds of the buffalo and elk, especially on the Western side. On the Eastern side are lakes and rivers, and the whole country is well-wooded, level, abounding in beavers, bears, moose-deer, fallow-

deer, etc. The natives are not very numerous. There is not perhaps a finer country in the world for the residence of uncivilized man. It abounds in everything necessary to the wants and comforts of such a people. Fish, venison, and fowl, with wild rice, are in great plenty."

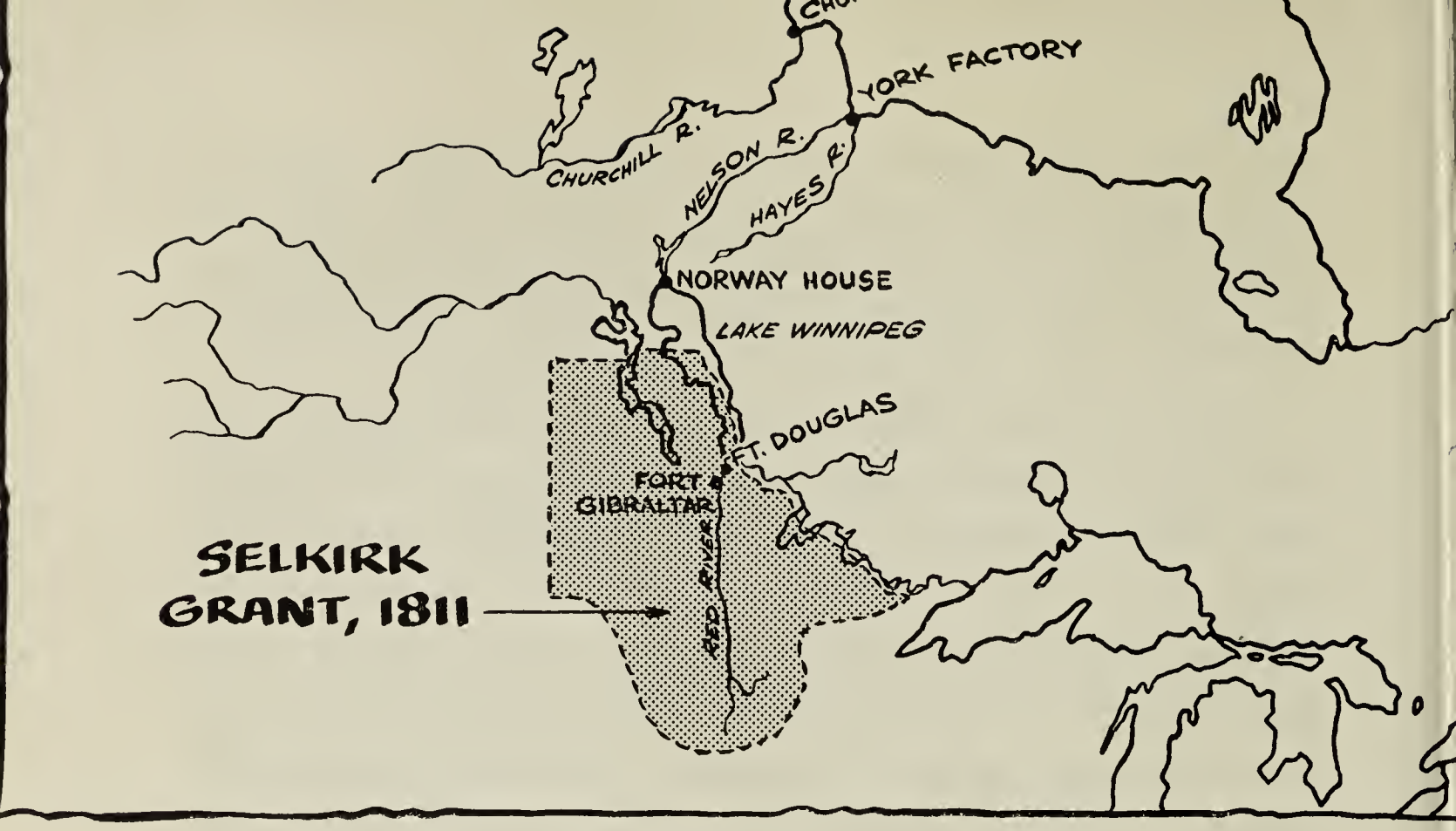
No doubt Lord Selkirk thought that if this country was ideal for uncivilized man it should be good for civilized man, too. He began to make plans to establish a settlement there.

Selkirk's plan must have seemed, to many people, wild and fantastic. The Red River Valley was hundreds of miles from any market. The journey was long and difficult, either by way of Hudson Bay or by way of Montreal. Neither the fur-traders nor the Indians were likely to welcome settlers. But Selkirk was a man who saw visions and dreamed dreams. He let no difficulties stop him.

THE FUR-TRADERS DO NOT APPROVE

When farmers come the fur-bearing animals disappear. Both the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Company were opposed to settlement in the West. Selkirk's great wealth enabled him to overcome the opposition of the Hudson's Bay Company. He bought shares in the Company, and in 1811 persuaded the governors to grant him one hundred and sixteen thousand square miles of land in what is now the province of Manitoba and the states of Dakota and Minnesota. This transaction made him the largest landowner in Christendom. The Hudson's Bay traders in Rupertsland did not want settlers but they could not oppose Selkirk's plan openly because the governors in London had agreed to it.

The Nor'westers declared that the settlement was a trick on the part of Lord Selkirk and the Hudson's Bay Company to ruin their fur trade. They would have disliked the



idea of a settlement anywhere in the fur-trading country but they had special reasons for objecting to the settlement at Red River, because they had several important trading-posts in that district. From their posts near the Red River they shipped food supplies to their traders at the northern posts. The chief article of food was pemmican, which the Indians made from dried buffalo meat. The traders were afraid that if settlers came into the district the Indians would move away and the buffalo would disappear.

Lord Selkirk realized some of the hardships his settlers would have to face. He did not, however, foresee that the Hudson's Bay Company officials at the Bay and at Red River would not help his colonists. He did not realize how violently the Nor'westers were opposed to his plan.

SETTLERS COME TO RED RIVER

Lord Selkirk's settlers, fewer than four hundred in all, came in four small groups between 1811 and 1815. These

people had endured dire poverty and misfortune in Scotland, but now Lord Selkirk was offering them an opportunity to make new homes in America. They knew little about the country to which they were coming, though they had heard tales about the Indians and about the freezing cold of the winters.

The journey across the Atlantic and into Hudson Bay was long and uncomfortable. Before the settlers landed, their food supplies were almost gone and the water was stale. When at last they landed on the shores of Hudson Bay, it was too late to start for Red River. Some were landed at York Factory on Hudson Bay, and some at Churchill.

The Company men on the Bay did very little to help the settlers. The first parties had to build their own shelters and then their own boats for the journey to Red River in the spring. They had to depend on hunting for food since the traders were not willing to give them any. The long severe winter on Hudson Bay was not a happy beginning for their life in the new land.

As soon as the ice broke on the rivers, the newcomers started on the long and difficult journey—over seven hundred miles—up the Hayes River, across to Lake Winnipeg and up the Red River to the junction of the Red

With a piper in the bow, settlers come to Red River



and the Assiniboine. It was seldom that the trip could be made in less than two months. They did not reach Red River until August, too late to plant crops. Because they still depended on hunting for food they had to follow the buffalo south. Fortunately, the Indians were kind and provided them with fish and pemmican.

Miles Macdonell, who had been sent out as governor of the little colony, ordered that no provisions were to be taken out of the settlement during 1814. This order, if carried out, would have ruined the North West Company's trade for the year. To the fur-traders, a supply of food meant a supply of pemmican. It was the ideal food for a long journey. To make it, buffalo meat was cut into thin strips, dried, and beaten into flakes, then packed into bags made of buffalo skin. Melted fat and marrow was poured over it until the whole was a solid mass, and dried fruit was sometimes added. Usually it was put up in bags of ninety pounds for journeys.

Macdonell's action almost ruined the colony. Now the Nor'westers became determined to destroy the settlement. First they offered free passage in their canoes and grants of land in Upper Canada to any settlers who would agree to go. Many accepted the offer, but thirteen families refused. Against them a campaign of fear and terror was then started. Fort Douglas, the headquarters of the settlement, the mill, stables, barns, and houses were burned to the ground. The "Loyalists of Red River"—about fifty persons—in fear for their lives had to make their way down Lake Winnipeg to Jack River, near Norway House on the Nelson. The Nor'westers were jubilant, but they rejoiced too soon. In the autumn of 1815, the Hudson's Bay Company sent Governor Semple out to Red River with another party of settlers. The little band of thirteen

families which had fled to Jack River returned and the settlement was established once more. Fort Douglas was re-built, and Fort Gibraltar, belonging to the North West Company, was destroyed by Semple's command.

THE MASSACRE AT SEVEN OAKS

Semple, knowing that the Nor'westers hated the colony, suspected that they might make further efforts to destroy it.

One day the look-out in the watch-tower of Fort Douglas saw a party of fifty Métis riding across the prairie. At once Semple led a party of thirty settlers to meet them. Who fired the first shot? Nobody knows. But the first shot was the signal for massacre. Semple and twenty of his party were killed at a spot since called Seven Oaks. Again the heart-broken settlers hurried for refuge to Jack River.

The Métis massacre 21 settlers at Seven Oaks



News travelled slowly in those days. Lord Selkirk had promised to visit his settlers at Red River. He had heard of the hardships they had endured, and the disastrous result of Miles Macdonell's pemmican proclamation. He was on his way to pay the promised visit, bringing with him a number of disbanded soldiers to protect his settlement, when he learned about the massacre at Seven Oaks. He acted promptly. He made straight for Fort William, the headquarters of the North West Company on Lake Superior. There he took possession of the fort and held captive all the Nor'westers found in it. In doing this he exceeded his authority and as a result became involved in a lawsuit later.

When Selkirk arrived at the colony on the Red River in the summer of 1817 he found that Miles Macdonell had persuaded the settlers to return a second time from Jack River. They were building their homes once again. For four months Selkirk worked to help them. He granted them free land, advised them where roads, bridges, and mills should be placed, and gave sites for churches and schools.

Lord Selkirk got along well with the Indians. He made a treaty with Chief Peguis which was the first treaty with the Indians west of the Great Lakes. Because of the rich gifts Lord Selkirk gave them the Indians called him the Silver Chief.

The first treaty with the Indians in the west is made between Lord Selkirk and Chief Peguis



Selkirk had spent half a million dollars of his own money on his colony, and it must have seemed to him that the results were small. Yet he did not lose faith in the future of the prairies. He predicted that "it might afford ample means of subsistence to more than thirty million British subjects".

When Selkirk returned to Montreal, he found himself sued by the North West Company for conspiring to ruin the fur trade. The fur-traders were very powerful, and Selkirk was ordered to pay heavy damages. He appealed to the Prime Minister of Great Britain, asking for an inquiry before the Privy Council. But before this inquiry could be held Lord Selkirk was dead.

The Silver Chief did not live to know that the settlers he sent to Red River would be followed by thousands of settlers who would take up farms on the prairies. He did not live to see the fulfilment of his hope that these western plains would be kept for Great Britain. We know to-day that he was right when he said that these western prairies would be the granary of the British Empire.

28. The Gold Colony

"We heard the call and we staked our all;
We were plungers playing blind,
And no man cared how his neighbour fared,
And no man looked behind."
ROBERT W. SERVICE: *Ballad of the Northern Lights*

GOLD IS DISCOVERED

In the summer of 1856 an Indian stooped to drink from the water of the Thompson River in British Columbia. As he stooped, his eye was attracted by a shining reddish-yellow pebble in the bed of the stream. He picked it up and kept it. Later he found that it was a golden nugget,



The gold rush in British Columbia is started by an Indian presenting a "pretty pebble" to a trader

and that the Hudson's Bay Company traders considered it as valuable as many furs. Other Indians began collecting the pretty pebbles. They found them not only in the bed of the Thompson River, but also in the Fraser River. In 1857 the Indians brought in to the Hudson's Bay Company posts no less than eight hundred ounces of gold.

THE GOLD RUSH

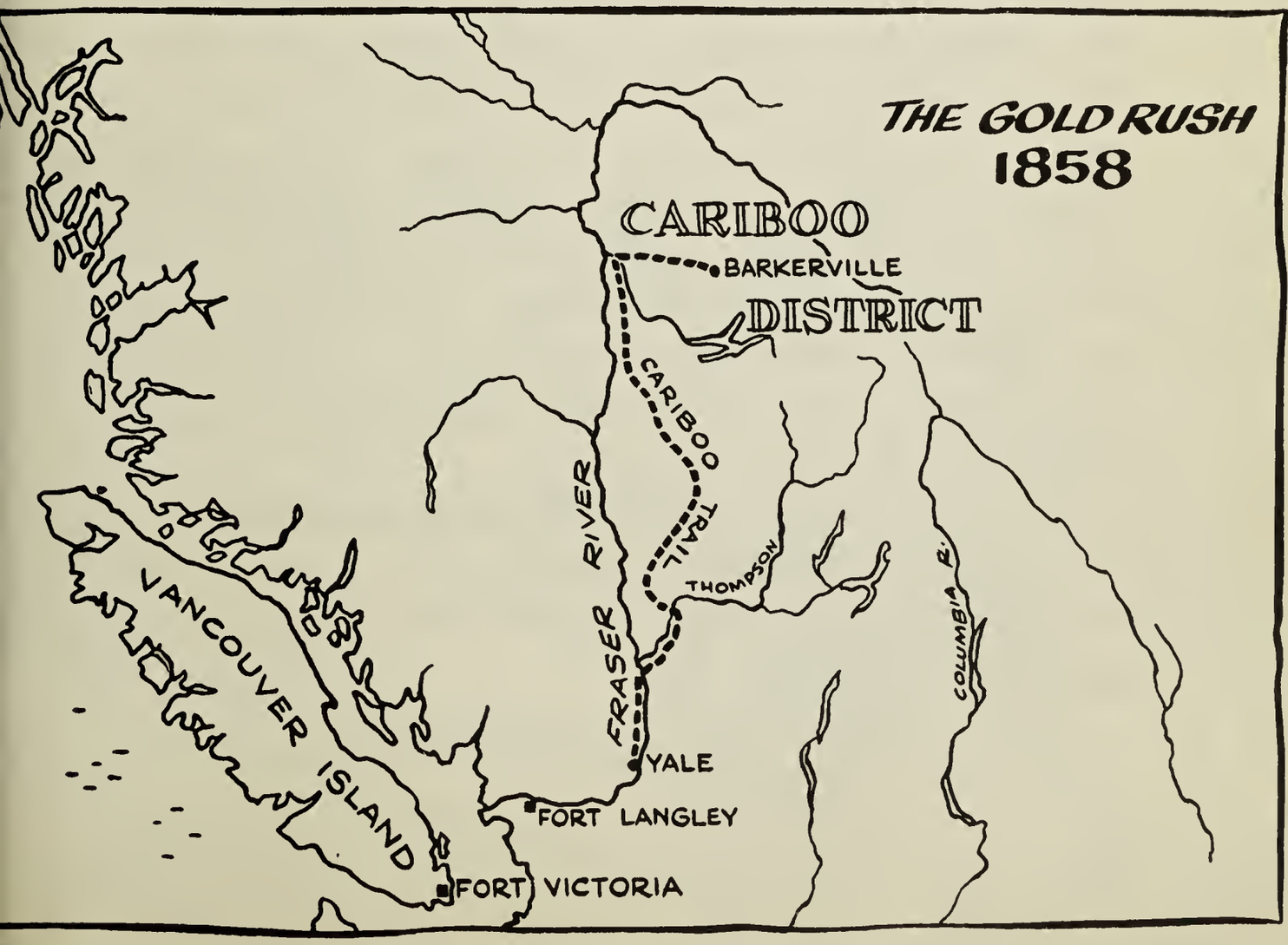
The news of this discovery spread like wild-fire. Many of the gold mines in California, which had been discovered in 1849, were nearly worked out. Miners from the California diggings came north in thousands. As if by magic, a city of tents sprang up round the Hudson's Bay Company post at Fort Victoria on Vancouver Island. Long lines of men stood waiting their turn at the Company's store, and the Company's smithy was besieged for picks, shovels, and ladles. Among the newcomers were many dangerous men, with fingers that found easily the triggers of their revolvers. It looked as though the Hudson's Bay men would have difficulty in preserving the peace among these reckless adventurers.

JAMES DOUGLAS MAINTAINS LAW AND ORDER

Fortunately, the governor of Vancouver Island at this time was a Scotsman of great courage, foresight, and energy, James (afterwards Sir James) Douglas. He had

entered the fur trade when he was seventeen, and by the time he was thirty had become chief factor of the Hudson's Bay Company on the Pacific Coast. In 1843 he founded Fort Victoria on Vancouver Island. When Vancouver Island was made a Crown colony in 1849 he was appointed governor.

When the horde of miners and prospectors flocked into Victoria in 1858, Douglas lost no time in dealing with the situation. He made it understood that Vancouver Island was British territory, and that none of the lawlessness which had characterized the California gold-rush would be permitted. He made every miner who proposed to go into the interior pay a registration fee, and, in order to cope with those who went direct to the mouth of the Fraser without stopping at Victoria, he gave orders that they should pay a tax for each canoe and each boat. He had really no authority to levy these taxes, but through them he kept some record of those who went into the interior, and thus was able to maintain some control over the wilder element among the miners.





James Douglas brings soldiers and judge into a mining camp to enforce the law. A departure from the lawlessness of other gold rushes

Later, in 1858, when the British Government made the mainland of British Columbia a Crown colony, Douglas was made governor there, as well as of Vancouver Island. This appointment established his authority to preserve law and order in the mining camps. When word came that disorders had broken out near Yale on the Fraser, Douglas promptly set out in the stern-wheeler *Enterprise* with a hundred blue-jackets, a company of Royal Engineers, a cannon, and a judge, and quelled the disorders on the spot. To their surprise, the miners found out that Douglas could bring British soldiers and a British judge into their midst within a few days. There was little further trouble. The miners learned that in British Columbia the law must be obeyed.

At first the miners contented themselves with working the sand-bars of the Fraser near Yale. Before long, however, the more adventurous pushed farther up the river

and its tributaries hoping to discover the source of the gold which the river had washed down. A second gold-rush began in 1859 when sensational new discoveries were made in the Cariboo district, where the creeks flowing into the Fraser were found to be much richer in gold than the sand-bars had been. Douglas at once set the Royal Engineers to work to build a road—still known as the Cariboo Trail—overland to the gold diggings. In the next five years millions of dollars' worth of gold were taken out and huge fortunes were made.

At one time there must have been over ten thousand miners in the colony. Some of them made vast fortunes. Some of them found no gold. Indeed, one of Governor Douglas's most difficult problems was caring for miners who had spent all their money, and had not found gold. In time, the unsuccessful miners left the country, and the population of the "gold colony" dropped to a fraction of what it had been. By the end of 1860, there were only about four thousand miners at work. They were the first settlers in what has become one of the wealthiest provinces of the Dominion.

Find a picture of the Cariboo Trail as it is today. You will see quite a difference between it and the scene below



In 1866 Vancouver Island and British Columbia were united, and became a self-governing province, with a Legislative Council and a Legislative Assembly, like those of the other British provinces in North America. Sir James Douglas did not favour the introduction of government by an assembly elected by the people. He had enjoyed authority too long and exercised it too well to be willing to see it handed over to anyone else. He knew that there were many people who thought that his rule had been too strict and his word too powerful. He could not believe that such people were capable of governing themselves. Moreover, ever since he had gone to the Pacific Coast, he had been in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company. Now that the company was no longer in control of the territory, it was a suitable time for him to pass from the scene. But his place in history is secure. He guided the destiny of British Columbia in its early and difficult days with wisdom and firmness. It is fitting that he should be remembered as "the Father of British Columbia".

For Further Study

1. Make a mural depicting the story of Henry Kelsey.
2. Prepare a report such as Hearne might have made to the officials of the Hudson's Bay Company after his expedition to the mouth of the Coppermine.
3. Make a list of the surprising changes which Alexander Mackenzie would find to-day if he sailed down the river which is named after him.
4. Prepare a discussion such as might have taken place when a group of Nor'westers debated whether it would be wiser to join the Hudson's Bay Company or to continue to compete with it.
5. During World War II the Alaska Highway was built to provide a safe route to Alaska for the American forces

and their supplies. On a map of western Canada mark the Alaska Highway. Try to find out why this route was chosen.

6. On one map of western Canada draw the routes followed by Kelsey, Henday, Hearne; on another the routes of Alexander Mackenzie, Fraser, and Thompson, using different coloured crayons for each.

7. Explorers are still seeking more knowledge of the Arctic regions. In modern times the Norwegians, Nansen and Amundsen, and a Manitoban of Icelandic descent, Stefansson, devoted their lives to northern exploration. Find out the stories of their expeditions.

8. Stefansson has written books about his experiences. You might enjoy reading *My Life With the Eskimos* (Macmillan).

9. Write a play about the Selkirk settlers: Act I, settlers departing from Scotland; Act II, a group of settlers discussing whether they should abandon the colony (here you would have an opportunity to tell about the hardships and dangers they endured and what they thought their prospects for the future were); Act III, good times at Red River.

10. The miners on the Fraser and the Cariboo were "placer-miners". Describe their primitive method of mining and contrast it with modern placer-mining.

11. What parallel of latitude other than the 49th forms part of the boundary between Canada and the United States?

12. Can you find out why Alaska has become so important to Canada and the United States to-day?

13. Add the stern-wheeler *Enterprise* to your Book of Ships.

14. Add to your stamp collection the fifty-cent Vancouver Harbour stamp and the twenty-cent Fort Garry Gate stamp of 1937.



VII. *Canadians Win the Right to Manage Their Own Affairs*

29. Our Free Government To-day

"Man is by nature a political animal."

ARISTOTLE: *Politics*

People cannot live together, work together, play together, without rules or laws. Wherever people are living together, working together, or playing together, they find for themselves leaders who become responsible for seeing that the rules are obeyed.

Baseball and hockey teams have their captains. Everyone realizes that, if every member of the team decides for himself what he will do, the game cannot be very successful. Therefore the team elects a captain who will speak for the team. If the team does not approve of what the captain does it holds a meeting and chooses another captain.

Societies, such as the Junior Red Cross, have rules and elect officers to carry on their business according to the rules. These officers are responsible to the society. If they do not carry on the business of the organization as the members want it done, they will not be re-elected.

Nations must have laws and people who are responsible for carrying out the laws. When the people who make the laws and manage the affairs of the country are elected by the people, that nation is said to have a *democratic system* of government.

A democratic government is not afraid to let the people think and talk freely. In Canada we have freedom of speech. We may criticize the government if we wish to do so. We are not allowed, however, to urge people to put the government out by force. We have freedom of assembly, that is, we have the right to hold meetings to discuss matters which concern us. We have freedom of the press. Our newspapers may criticize the government and propose changes in the way we are governed.

We are justly proud of our democratic system of government. The laws of Canada are laws which are made by the representatives we elect. If we want to change certain laws, we can change them by electing to Parliament people who believe those laws should be changed.

Every Canadian citizen over twenty-one years of age has the right to vote to elect the men and women who manage our affairs and make our laws.

OUR TOWN COUNCIL

We elect members to our Town or City Council or to the Council of the Rural Municipality in which we live. Some are elected for one year, some for two years. If they do not manage our affairs as we want them managed, we choose other people at the next election. The members of these councils deal with matters which concern their own homes, such as streets and sidewalks, police and fire protection, water supply, garbage collection, bicycle licences, libraries, and parks. They decide what taxes are needed

to pay the cost of providing the services that the people of the district want. In some towns the people want playgrounds and community halls, and are willing to pay higher taxes so that they can have them. In other towns the citizens are not willing to pay for improvements. The members of the Council must do what they believe the citizens want. Otherwise those members will not be elected again.

OUR PROVINCIAL LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY

In each province the citizens elect members to the Legislative Assembly which manages the affairs of the province and makes laws for it when new laws are needed. Elections to the Legislative Assembly take place at least every five years, sometimes more frequently. If the people of the province do not like the way the members manage public affairs, they vote for other representatives at the next election. The members of the Legislative Assembly look after matters which concern the whole province, such as highways, bridges, speed regulations on the highway, education, public health, and regulations about employment within the province. They also determine what taxes are needed to provide the money to pay the expenses of governing the province.

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

We elect representatives, also, to the Parliament which meets in Ottawa, the capital of Canada. This Parliament consists of two parts. There is the House of Commons, elected by the people of every province in Canada. As in the provinces, there must be an election at least every five years. Then the voters have an opportunity to show their representatives whether they approve of the way the

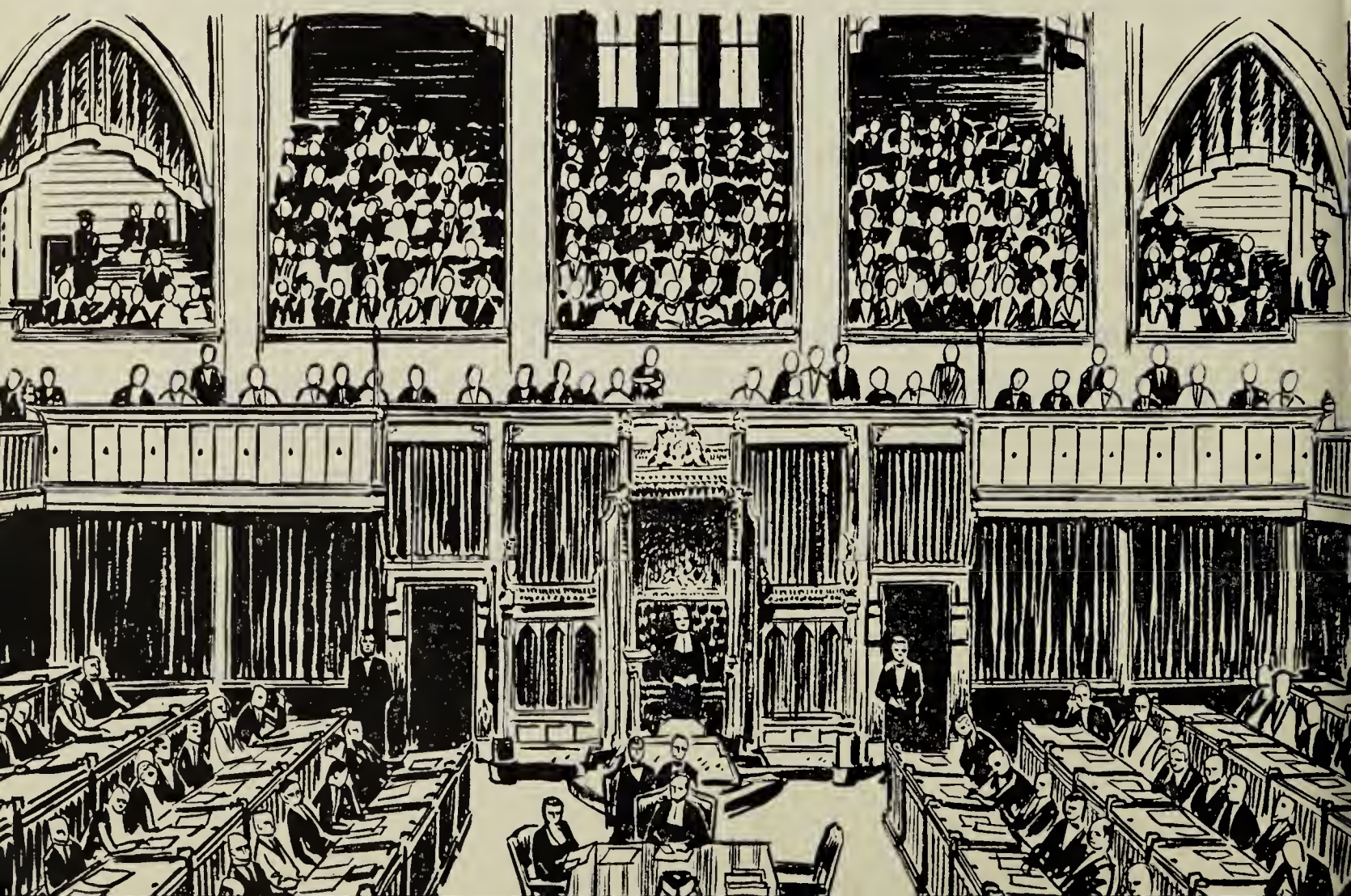
business of the country has been carried on. The other part of the Parliament is the Senate, made up of 102 members who are appointed for life.

Parliament makes the laws about matters which concern the whole of Canada. It has control over the army, the navy, the air force, and all matters relating to the defence of Canada. It makes the laws which apply to the railways, harbours, and canals; to postal services, money, and banking. It makes treaties and trade agreements with other countries. And it determines what taxes are needed to pay the huge cost of managing the affairs of the nation.

POLITICAL PARTIES

When a number of people share the same ideas about how the country should be governed, they form a political party. To-day there are several political parties in Canada. There are the Liberals, the Progressive Conservatives, the Co-operative Commonwealth Federation, commonly called the C.C.F., the Labour Progressive, and the Social Credit parties.

The House of Commons is shown in session



When the time comes for an election, the members of each party decide which of their members they will select to run for Parliament. Meetings are held all over the country. Candidates make speeches telling what they will do if they are elected. Each party has some time on the radio, when its best speakers urge everyone who is listening to vote for the party. Pictures of the candidates are put up on sign-boards. Pamphlets are printed and mailed to the voters. Each party does all it can to get as many votes as possible for its candidates.

PARLIAMENT AT WORK

The House of Commons has 262 members. These members do not spend all their time in Ottawa. They meet regularly once a year and for several months they work at the business of governing the country. Then they go back to their own homes, but they may be called back to Ottawa at any time if they are needed. For example, if there is danger of war, or if any other serious emergency arises, the members are called to meet in Ottawa at once.

THE CABINET

But the business of the country must be looked after all the time. This is how it is done. After the election, the leader of the party which has the largest number of members elected to the House of Commons becomes the Prime Minister. He chooses a number of members from his party to assist him. This group is called the Cabinet. Sometimes it is called the Executive Council. *Executive* means *having the power to act*. The Cabinet has the power to carry out the laws which Parliament makes.

Each member of the Cabinet is given a department to look after. The Minister of Defence has control of the

army, the navy, the air force, and all matters pertaining to the defence of Canada. The Minister of Trade and Commerce carries out the regulations about trade and commerce in Canada and between Canada and other countries. The Postmaster-General runs the postal system. The Minister of Transport looks after the regulations which affect railways and canals.

THE PASSING OF A LAW

Let us examine what happens when a law is passed. Take, for example, the passing of the law to provide Family Allowances. The members of the Cabinet thought it would be a wise plan to pay to every family a sum of money to help meet the cost of bringing up children. A member of the Cabinet drew up a bill which outlined how this could be done.

After the members of the Cabinet discussed the proposed bill and agreed upon it, it was presented to the House of Commons. There it was discussed very fully. Members who favoured it had an opportunity to tell why they did. Those who opposed it could say why. Those who thought it should be changed in some particulars had an opportunity to suggest changes.

Meanwhile all this discussion was reported to the people of Canada in the newspapers and over the radio. Citizens wrote to their representatives telling them what they thought should be done. Clubs and organizations passed resolutions stating what their members thought should be done. After a long discussion and careful examination the bill was passed by the House of Commons. Then it was sent to the Senate. Again it was discussed. After it was passed by the Senate, it was signed by the Governor-General. Then it became law.

Once the bill was law, it became the duty of the Minister of Health and Public Welfare to carry it out. He established offices in various parts of Canada, engaged people to work in them, gathered the information that was needed, and organized a staff to pay out the Family Allowance cheques to families that were entitled to receive them.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

We say that Canada has Responsible Government. Just what does that mean? Let us examine it.

Nations have found that it is not enough to have the privilege of electing the men and women who make their laws and manage their affairs. There must be some way of making the law-makers responsible to the voters so that the laws the voters want will be passed. That is why elections are held at least every five years. The Members of Parliament have to answer to the voters at every election.

Then, too, the members of the Cabinet or Executive Council must not be given too much power. They must be responsible to the elected representatives of the people. That is why the Prime Minister and his Cabinet are always chosen from the party having the majority in the House of Commons. If the Prime Minister and his Cabinet lose the support of the majority of the members, if some bill which they propose is defeated, or if a vote of "lack of confidence" in them is passed, then the Prime Minister and his Cabinet must resign. If no other party is strong enough to form a government, there must be an election. Again the leader of the party which has the largest number of members elected becomes Prime Minister, and he selects his Cabinet from his party. Therefore the Prime

Minister and his Cabinet are always responsible for their actions to the House of Commons, and through them to the voters.

Even so, if the Governor-General had the right to refuse to assent to a bill, the laws which the voters want might not be passed. At one time, the Governor-General in Canada was responsible to the British Government for the laws which were passed in Canada and he might refuse to sign a bill. For over a hundred years, however, no Governor-General has refused to give his assent to any bill passed by Parliament.

The two essential features of Responsible Government are: first, that the Prime Minister and his Cabinet are responsible to the representatives of the people; second, that the Governor-General, like the monarch in Britain, always acts on the advice of his Cabinet, or Executive Council, and always gives his assent to bills passed by the Parliament.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF EVERY CITIZEN

It is our responsibility as voters to choose the best men and women we can find to represent us in our Parliament in Ottawa, in our Legislative Assembly, in our Councils, and on our School Boards. We must keep ourselves informed about what our representatives are doing. They are the servants of the people because the people elect them to office.

The business of government is our business. We have the power to elect the representatives who make our laws and manage our affairs, and the power to vote against them if they do not look after the business of government as we believe they should. It is our duty to vote carefully and to see that the government of our country is well-managed by the people to whom we entrust it.



30. The First Parliaments

"There is one thing better than good government, and that is government in which all the people have a part."
WALTER HINES PAGE: *Life and Letters*

THE FIRST ASSEMBLY IN NOVA SCOTIA

The British settlers who came to Halifax with Lord Cornwallis expected that they would have the right to elect an Assembly to make laws for them, just as the people in the Thirteen Colonies to the south did. Cornwallis was a soldier, accustomed to giving orders, and he was sure that he knew what was best for the colony. He did not see any need for an Assembly. His successor, Governor Lawrence, made the danger of war with France an excuse for not arranging for an election.

However, after the Acadians were exiled, settlers from the New England colonies came to take over the rich farm lands. The governor encouraged them to come because he knew that they were accustomed to life in a new country and would make good settlers. Since these New Englanders had been accustomed to electing representatives to make their laws, they began to demand an Assembly. Still the governor delayed, declaring that while

the country was at war, it was safer to have all authority in the hands of one person. After Louisbourg was taken by the British, there was no longer any excuse for delay. At last an election was held. The first Assembly of the province of Nova Scotia met in the Court House in Halifax on October 2nd, 1758.

This was the first elected Assembly, the first step in self-government, in what is now known as Canada.

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF BRITISH RULE IN CANADA

Although Quebec fell in 1759 and Montreal in 1760, it was not until 1763 that the treaty which handed Canada over to Great Britain was signed. Until 1763 government was in the hands of the generals of the army.

After the treaty was signed, plans had to be made for governing the new colony. The British Government, hoping to attract settlers to Canada, promised that there would be an elected Assembly "as soon as conditions would warrant it".

The first governors, General Murray and Sir Guy Carleton, had been soldiers. They did not look with favour upon elected assemblies. They felt certain that they should decide what was best for the colony. Most of the people in Canada were French in origin and had had little experience in taking part in the government. Carleton thought the climate was so severe and the country so poor that "barring catastrophe shocking to think of" settlers of French origin would always make up most of the population. When the catastrophe took place, when the Thirteen Colonies won their independence and thousands of United Empire Loyalists came to Canada, it was clear that some change would have to be made in the government. It seemed that now "conditions would warrant" providing for an elected Assembly.

PROVISION IS MADE FOR AN ELECTED ASSEMBLY IN CANADA

By an act, called the Constitutional Act of 1791, Canada was divided into two provinces, Upper and Lower Canada. Upper Canada, in the upper valley of the St. Lawrence-Great Lakes system, is now known as Ontario. Lower Canada, in the lower St. Lawrence valley, is now known as Quebec. Each province was to have a governor, sent out from England; an Executive Council, appointed by the governor; a Legislative Council, appointed by the governor; and a Legislative Assembly, elected by the people.

Legislative means law-making. The Legislative Assembly and the Legislative Council both had the right to propose laws, but no bill could become law unless both bodies agreed upon it, just as to-day no bill can become law in Canada until the House of Commons and the Senate agree on it.

Executive means having the power to act. It comes from the Latin word meaning to "follow to the end". The Executive Council assisted the governor in carrying out the laws which were passed. Its members advised the governor about grants of land, about the building of roads and bridges, and about the appointment of officials, such as postmasters, sheriffs, or judges. As in the Cabinet to-day, each member of the Executive Council usually had one department of government which he looked after.

WOULD THIS SYSTEM WORK?

The settlers were pleased when they heard about the Constitutional Act. Now, they thought, they would have a voice in making the laws and managing the affairs of the colony. But it was not long before they realized that the Legislative Council could block the bills passed by the Assembly. How long would the two bodies work together without trouble?

31. "The Little Rebel"

"All we have of freedom, all we use or know—
This our fathers bought for us long and long ago."
RUDYARD KIPLING: *The Old Issue*

WILLIAM LYON MACKENZIE

Our free government was not won without a bitter struggle. One of the leaders of the struggle in Upper Canada was a fiery little Scotsman named William Lyon Mackenzie, who came to Canada in 1820. He had not been here long before he set up a newspaper, the *Colonial Advocate*, in York. In the columns of his paper he asked embarrassing questions. Who was making money out of the high postal rates? Why were public works so expensive? Why should it always be a clergyman of the Church of England who read the prayers at the opening of the Legislature? Why were good roads built in certain districts and not in others? How did some men get such large land grants?

Sometimes, in the newspaper, Mackenzie made bitter personal attacks upon public officials. Some young men of the Family Compact party became so angry about these attacks that one day they broke into his printing office and

Young men wreck Mackenzie's printing shop because he used his newspaper against the abuses of the Family Compact



smashed his press and threw the type into Toronto Bay. This time the joke was on them. Mackenzie had been having a hard time paying the expenses of his paper. Now he was able to sue the men who had destroyed his press and scattered his type, and the court awarded him enough money to make a fresh start.

CAUSES OF DISCONTENT

The settlers were not satisfied with the way land was granted. Large tracts were granted to men who did not intend to farm the land. They planned to hold it hoping that they could sell for a high price when the land around it was settled. One section in every seven was set aside to provide money to support the Church of England. These areas remained unoccupied, separating settlers from their neighbours. Wild animals roaming in the unsettled sections sometimes carried off sheep and poultry. Sometimes the bears and wolves attacked children.

Even to-day we depend upon our neighbours to help us in time of trouble. In the early days settlers were still more dependent upon the co-operation of their neighbours. Until there were several families settled in a district there could not be good roads, or a school, or a church, or a blacksmith's shop.

In a pioneer country, roads by which the settlers can take their produce to market are of the utmost importance. It was the Executive Council that decided where the new roads and bridges should be built. Sometimes the members of the Council had the roads placed where they would be useful to their friends and relatives instead of where the roads were most needed.

Most of the public offices, such as the positions of postmaster, tax-collector, judge, and sheriff, were given to

friends and relatives of members of the Executive Council. These men may have been capable of filling these offices properly, but the other people in the province thought it was not fair that all the government jobs should be given to this one group. They began to call the members of the Council and their friends the "Family Compact".

More and more people began to complain about the government. When they met in shops or taverns, when they visited their neighbours to help with the barn-raising or the corn-husking, they talked about their grievances, and about what should be done to improve the situation.

The group who wanted conditions changed called themselves Reformers. Even when the Reformers succeeded in getting a majority in the Legislative Assembly, they found they could not accomplish very much. Unless a bill was passed by both the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly and signed by the governor it did not become law. If the Legislative Council did not agree to pass the bill, or if the governor would not sign it, there was nothing the Legislative Assembly could do about it.

The members of the Legislative and Executive Councils were appointed for life, while the members of the Legislative Assembly held office only from one election to another. The members of the Councils thought that only they and the officials sent out from Britain knew how to rule wisely. They considered themselves responsible for upholding British ideas and traditions. Many of them were United Empire Loyalists or the sons of Loyalists who would never forget that they had lost their homes south of the border because of their loyalty to Britain. Many of them believed that the privilege of governing and holding office was the just reward for their former sacrifices.

The Reformers did not see why any one group should be as powerful as the Family Compact. The Reformers

included in their party many newcomers from Great Britain and some from the United States. Many of them lived on backwood farms. They were certain that the Family Compact group did not understand their problems and did not care about improving conditions in the rural areas.

MACKENZIE ELECTED TO THE ASSEMBLY

The Reformers thought that William Lyon Mackenzie, who wrote so boldly about the need for change, would be a good man to speak for them in the Assembly. Accordingly, they elected him to represent the town of York. He continued to criticize the Family Compact in his newspaper, whereupon the Family Compact expelled him from the Assembly. Five times he was expelled and five times re-elected. When York became, in 1834, the city of Toronto, Mackenzie was elected its first mayor. It is clear that the majority of the people of Toronto approved of what he said and did.

It was not wise of the Family Compact group to refuse to allow Mackenzie to stay in the Assembly. It is true that he said bitter things about them in the *Colonial Advocate*. But they said just as bitter things about him. By persecuting him they made him a hero of the people. It was obvious that he was the man the people of York wanted as their representative in the Assembly. Mackenzie went to England and stated his case. There could be no doubt that he had been treated unfairly, and the men who had been responsible for expelling him from the Assembly were dismissed from office.

In 1834 the Reformers drew up a report listing their grievances. As they now had a majority in the Assembly, they passed the report and sent it to the British Government. No attention was paid to their protests. When he

saw that legal methods were not advancing the cause, Mackenzie grew very impatient, and his criticisms of the Family Compact party became more and more violent. When he demanded "Will Canadians declare their independence and take up their muskets?" wiser men among the Reformers felt that he was going too far. They believed that they should continue to struggle for reforms by peaceful means and not by force. These men were right. When Mackenzie led his followers in rebellion, he made a tragic mistake.

REBELLION

The rebellion was not well planned. Many of the Reformers, though they thought change was needed, were not prepared to rebel against the government or to ally themselves with the Americans as Mackenzie suggested. When the time came to fight, Mackenzie did not have as many supporters as he had expected.

Everything went wrong with the plans for action. The rebels had set December 7th as the date for their uprising. But when they learned that an order had been issued to arrest Mackenzie, they realized that the government knew of their plans. Word was sent out for their men to come at once. They began to gather north of Toronto, ready to march on the city, hoping to capture the City Hall and the supply of guns and ammunition which they knew was stored there. On the night of December 4th, even though many of the supporters they expected had not been able to get there in time, the rebels attempted to stop people from going in or out of the city. One man was killed on each side.

Rebels to prevent citizens from entering or leaving the City of Toronto





Mackenzie and his followers march down Yonge Street to attack Toronto

The next night when Mackenzie was leading about eight hundred men down Yonge Street to attempt to take the city, a picket fired at the column. The picket turned and fled, but so did the rebels. After a headlong retreat the rebels gathered at Montgomery's Tavern, on north Yonge Street. The next day troops marched out from Toronto and after a short battle, completely scattered the rebels. Those who were captured were put in prison. Two were tried for treason and executed. They had been foolish to take up arms against the government, but they were not wicked men. They believed that they were fighting for their rights.

Though a large reward was offered to anyone who would capture him, Mackenzie succeeded in making his escape to the United States—hiding in barns and haystacks by day and travelling by night, sometimes fording icy streams barefoot. Years later he said that after crossing one stream, "the frozen sand seemed warm beneath my feet."

In the spring of 1838, Mackenzie tried to set up a provisional government on Navy Island in the Niagara River. He enlisted the support of some American adventurers who were attracted by the idea of capturing the government of Canada. As the American Government did not want to get into any dispute with Great Britain, Mackenzie was sent to jail there for stirring up trouble against Canada while living in the United States. In 1849 when the Canadian Government permitted those who had taken part in the rebellion to return to Canada, he came back to Toronto, and was once more elected to the Legislature.

William Lyon Mackenzie was a man of rash and excitable temperament. His views and methods were not those of a great statesman, but he was honest in his opinions and fearless in expressing them. He fought against grave abuses in the government of Upper Canada, and his rebellion served to draw attention forcibly to those abuses. The very fact that in 1837, the first year of the reign of the young Queen Victoria, there should have been an armed rebellion in Canada shocked public opinion in Great Britain, and roused the British Government to make a serious effort to improve the situation. It showed clearly that the people of Canada must be given a greater voice in the control of their own affairs. And that was what Mackenzie, in his rash and often misguided way, had been trying to achieve.

Although the rebellion was put down, it served its purpose. The British Government sent Lord Durham to Canada to investigate conditions. Let us see what was happening in the other provinces at this time. Upper Canada was not the only province in which the people were dissatisfied with the government. There was discontent also in Lower Canada and in Nova Scotia.

32. The Silver-Tongued Orator

"His tongue
Dropped manna, and could make the worse appear
The better reason."

JOHN MILTON: *Paradise Lost*

LOUIS JOSEPH PAPINEAU

In Lower Canada the rebellion was more serious than in Upper Canada, because it had the support of most of the French-speaking people. The leader was a seignior, Louis Joseph Papineau. His father had helped Carleton to defend Quebec against the Americans, and he himself had been an officer of the British army during the war of 1812-1814. When he was only twenty-six, he was elected to the Assembly and three years later, in 1815, he became Speaker, or Chairman, of the Assembly, a position he held for over twenty years. He was an earnest student of law and of history, and had stated publicly that British rule had brought great benefits to Canada. Unfortunately a bill was introduced in the British Parliament to unite Upper and Lower Canada, a bill which seemed to aim at subordinating the French in Lower Canada to the British. Papineau was one of the men sent to England to protest against it. The bill was not passed, but the damage was done, for it aroused resentment and suspicion in the minds of the French-speaking Canadians.

Papineau was a fine orator and a natural leader of men



Papineau was a born leader of men. He was tall and handsome, and so able a speaker that one of his school friends wrote of him, "Never within the memory of teacher or student had a voice so eloquent filled the halls of the seminary of Quebec." He became known as the "tribune of the people" because of his championship of the rights of the French Canadians.

CAUSES OF DISCONTENT

The majority of the people of Lower Canada were descendants of the early French settlers. They spoke the French language; few of them could speak any English. When the British took control they sent an English governor and English officials to manage the affairs of the colony. It is difficult for people to get along together when they do not understand each other's language.

The English-speaking group was small but powerful. It consisted chiefly of business men, who were eager to establish mills and factories, and to build new roads, bridges, and canals. Though they realized that these improvements would make the taxes higher, they believed that business would improve so much that it would not be difficult to pay the taxes. They wanted to encourage settlers to come from the British Isles. They believed that British ideas and customs should prevail and that the French-speaking groups would accept them. They declared that the English language should be the official language, even though the majority of the people in the province did not speak it or understand it. Almost all the English-speaking group were Protestants, while the French-speaking group were Roman Catholics.

The English were newcomers. French families had lived in Lower Canada for generations. They did not want strangers coming into their country. Most of them were

farmers, who loved their own farms and believed they should keep the land of their colony for their children and their grandchildren. They were not willing to pay taxes for new roads and bridges and canals. They did not want a new way of life with mills and factories. They wanted to be left alone to live as their fathers and grandfathers had lived, to speak the French language, and to support the Roman Catholic Church.

Naturally the French-speaking group, since there were so many more of them, always had the majority in the Legislative Assembly. But since the governor appointed the members of the Executive and Legislative Councils, the majority in these councils belonged to the English-speaking group. Since the Legislative Council could block any law the Legislative Assembly proposed, the French-speaking group could not pass any law unless the English-speaking group agreed to it.

The group of English-speaking business men who made up the Executive and Legislative Councils became known as the *Château Clique*. "Château" is a French word meaning castle. "Clique" means set or group. The governor lived in the Château St. Louis, and the Château Clique was the group he entertained there, the group he called upon to help him govern the country.

In some respects, the Château Clique in Lower Canada and the Family Compact in Upper Canada were alike. They both controlled the Executive and Legislative Councils. They both believed that they and they alone were fitted to govern the country.

THE RISING STORM

The Legislative Assembly had one powerful weapon. It could refuse to vote money to pay the salaries of the officials of the government. In 1834 the Assembly, led by



Young men of opposing factions fight in the streets of Montreal

Papineau, drew up a statement of its grievances and sent it to the King. When no attention was paid to their protest, Papineau convinced the members of the Assembly that they should refuse to vote any money for the salaries of government officials. In 1836 the British Parliament told the governor of Lower Canada to pay money out of the treasury whether the Assembly voted it or not.

This action was almost equivalent to abolishing the constitution of Lower Canada. Up to this point Papineau and his supporters had carried on their agitation in accordance with the law of the land. Now they began to talk seriously of violent measures. "The time has come," exclaimed Wolfred Nelson, "to melt our spoons into bullets." Papineau himself did not at the time favour open rebellion. In fact it is doubtful if he was at any time in favour of the use of force, but he was influenced by some of his younger and more reckless lieutenants.

In the autumn of 1837 the Sons of Liberty, as the younger group of the Reformers called themselves, clashed in a street fight with members of the Doric Club, an organiza-

tion formed by the young men of the leading English and Scottish families in Montreal. Thoughtful people were alarmed by this street rioting. The clergy were anxious to keep peace and one of the priests went to Papineau to advise him, since his presence appeared to be the cause of disorder, to leave the city for a while. Papineau accepted the advice. Unfortunately, some of the British authorities, assuming that he had gone out into the country to stir the people of the villages to revolt, issued an order for his arrest and warrants for the arrest of his followers.

REBELLION

As soon as the news of these warrants got around, the habitants began to gather to defend their leaders. There were several clashes between the rebels and the government militia. There was more actual fighting than there had been in Upper Canada, but the result was the same. The rebellion was quickly put down.

As in Upper Canada, there were many who wanted reform but were not in favour of taking up arms to get it. Only a small number actually took part in the fighting. From the beginning the Roman Catholic Church disapproved of the rebellion.

Papineau, like Mackenzie, escaped to the United States, where, like Mackenzie, he tried without success to secure support. When he failed he went to France, where he remained until the government of Canada passed an act permitting those who had taken part in the rebellion to return to Canada. Like Mackenzie, he was elected to the Legislative Assembly again. But neither William Lyon Mackenzie nor Louis Joseph Papineau played a significant part in the new Legislative Assembly after their return. Their followers respected them for the sacrifices they

made, and history acknowledges that they fought to preserve the rights of free citizens in a free country. They made their contribution to the story of Canada by making the British Government realize that something must be done to remedy the conditions which had driven these men to take up arms. But the leadership of the Reform party had passed to other hands.

Shortly before his death, Papineau made a memorable defence of his career in a speech in Montreal. "You will believe me, I trust," he said, "when I say to you, I love my country . . . Opinions outside may differ. But looking into my heart and mind in all sincerity, I feel I can say that I have loved her as she should be loved. The sentiment of love of my country I imbibed from the breasts of my nurse—my saintly mother. The brief phrase in which it is best expressed, 'my country first', I learned to lisp at my father's knee."

33. Joseph Howe in Nova Scotia

"We must be free or die, who speak the tongue
That Shakespeare spake; the faith and morals hold
Which Milton held."

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH: *It Is Not To Be Thought Of*

THE RULING GROUP IN NOVA SCOTIA

There was discontent in Nova Scotia about the way in which the Council kept all the power in its own hands. Halifax was the only large town in the province. It was a garrison town, with troops of soldiers stationed there, and it was also headquarters of the British fleet in the North Atlantic. Many retired army and navy officers made their homes in Halifax. Officers in the army and the navy are accustomed to obey their superior officers and give commands to those under them—commands which they

expect to be obeyed without questions or discussion. The retired officers living in Halifax did not have much respect for assemblies elected by the people.

With the government officials and the leading business men, these army and navy officers made up a group whose members honestly believed that they should control the government. Considering themselves superior to the other people of the province, they formed an exclusive social group which imitated the manners of the lords and ladies of England. Joseph Howe, who became the leader of the Reformers in Nova Scotia, said bitterly, "They have scorned me at their feasts and they have insulted me at their funerals."

JOSEPH HOWE

Joseph Howe was the son of a United Empire Loyalist. He was intensely loyal to Great Britain. One of the things that angered him most about the governing group in Nova Scotia was that its members talked as if they were the only people who were loyal to Britain. They seemed to think that anyone who wanted any change or reform was disloyal.

In his work as editor of the *Nova Scotian*, Howe travelled the length and breadth of Nova Scotia. He was a warm-hearted, genial person who made friends easily and kept them long. He loved his native province with great devotion. In his speeches and his newspaper he constantly extolled the beauty and resources of Nova Scotia. "Boys," he once said to an audience, "brag about your country."

Joseph Howe spoke out boldly in favour of reforms. He objected to the fact that in Nova Scotia the Executive and Legislative Councils were united into one and that they held their meetings in secret. He demanded better

opportunities for education for the young people of the province. He criticized the special privileges enjoyed by the Church of England.

Howe was sued for libel in 1835, when a letter in his paper contained a bitter attack on some of the Family Compact officials, or Tories as they were called in Nova Scotia. Howe had not written the letter, but, as editor of the paper, he took full responsibility for it. Though the lawyers advised him that he would probably be found guilty, he determined to fight the case. For two weeks he studied the law of libel, and when the day of the trial came he defended himself eloquently in a speech that lasted over six hours. Not only was he declared not guilty of libel; he was carried home in triumph on the shoulders of the crowd. The next year he was elected to the Assembly with a large majority and was soon recognized as the leader of the Reform party.

In the Assembly Howe proposed certain resolutions stating the grievances of the people of Nova Scotia against the government. His protest received more attention than the protests of Mackenzie in Upper Canada or of Papineau in Lower Canada. Some changes were made by the British Government, but Howe and his supporters thought that there still remained many more which would improve the government of Nova Scotia. Howe asked only for "the rights of Englishmen". There was no talk of rebellion in

Howe fights for the freedom of the press in the courts of Nova Scotia





Howe's wonderful way with people turns a mob into a group of laughing, friendly people

Nova Scotia. Later when the struggle was over Howe wrote,

> "The blood of no brother, in civil strife poured,
> In this hour of rejoicing encumbers our souls!
> The frontier's the place for the patriot's sword,
> And cursed is the weapon that faction controls!"

He possessed a ready wit. Once when a mob who disagreed with his views gathered at his door he came out and talked to the trouble-makers until they forgot their anger. Then he called, "And now, boys, if any of you has a stick, just leave it in my porch as a keepsake." The crowd roared with laughter and threw their sticks toward his porch as he suggested, leaving him a stock of fuel and going away disarmed and in good humour.

HOWE'S FOUR OPEN LETTERS

Shortly after Lord Durham presented his report to the British Parliament Howe wrote four letters to the Colonial Secretary. He published these letters in his newspaper

and sent them to other papers for publication. In them he set forth the arguments for making the executive responsible to the elected Assembly, just as the Cabinet in Great Britain is responsible to the House of Commons. "Was responsible government withheld," he asked, "from a suspicion of disloyalty? Colonial loyalty would bear examination. What are the dangers? Is Her Majesty in mortal terror because the citizens of London govern themselves? Does anyone imagine the Lord Mayor of London declaring war upon France? Would we do it in Canada?" These letters were probably as effective as Lord Durham's report in convincing those who read them that Responsible Government was possible for the colonies.

34. The Turning-Point—The Great Report

"For what avail the plough or sail,
Or land or life, if freedom fail?"
RALPH WALDO EMERSON: *Boston*

The rebellions in Upper and Lower Canada and the agitation for reform in Nova Scotia made the British Government realize that something must be done to improve conditions in British North America. To discover what was causing the trouble and to determine what should be done to set affairs right, a very able man, Lord Durham, was appointed Governor-General of British North America, and Lord High Commissioner for Her Majesty Queen Victoria.

Lord Durham had already attained a distinguished position in British politics. Though he came from a rich and powerful family, he had a genuine respect for the common people and a regard for their welfare. His col-

leagues, however, found him difficult to work with. They called him "Radical Jack" because he insisted that the common people should have some voice in governing the country. In 1835 they sent him as ambassador to Russia to get him out of the way. When he returned to England, they suggested that he should be the one to inquire into conditions in Canada. He was not very eager to accept the task, but when the young Queen herself appealed to him he agreed to undertake it.

It was a good appointment. Durham's respect for the rights of the common people made it certain that he would deal sympathetically with the Canadian Reformers. The Family Compact members could not fail to be impressed by a man of his high position. He was a man of great ability, who quickly grasped the problem of government in Canada and was able to devise remedies for the difficulties of the times.

Lord Durham came to Canada with his whole family, twenty-two aides, secretaries, and servants, and his own band. It took two days to unload his luggage. Dressed in splendid uniform, mounted on a spectacular white horse, he rode through the streets of Quebec to the Château St.

The people cheer Durham as he rides through the streets of Quebec on his arrival in Canada



Louis. He gave magnificent parties, at which servants dressed in handsome livery served his guests on gold and silver plates. To these festivities he invited people from both political groups. This was something new. Previous governors had entertained only the Château Clique or the Family Compact. The people of Canada were pleased that the British Government had sent out so distinguished a nobleman to investigate their problems. The Reformers were especially pleased when they learned that he wanted to hear the opinions of people of all classes.

Lord Durham worked very hard. He travelled all over the country, interviewing people everywhere and discussing the situation with them. One of the men whom he met was Robert Baldwin, a member of the Reform party, who, though he had struggled to bring about reforms in the Assembly, had disapproved of Mackenzie's plan for rebellion. Lord Durham considered Baldwin's ideas so sensible that he asked him to write a letter outlining them.

BALDWIN'S SUGGESTIONS

Robert Baldwin was convinced that the answer to Canada's problems was to establish a system of government more nearly like that of Great Britain. The Executive Council, he said, should be responsible to the Legislative Assembly, just as the British Cabinet is responsible to the Parliament of Great Britain. The members of the British Cabinet are chosen from the party having the majority in the House of Commons. When one party is defeated and another party wins a majority, the Cabinet ministers resign and the new Cabinet is made up from the new party which has won the majority.

That was the system in Britain in Lord Durham's time. It is the system of government we now have in Canada. But there were many people both in Britain and in Canada who thought it would never be possible to have that system

in a colony. They were afraid that the laws which the Assembly wanted passed might not be acceptable to the Colonial Office in Britain. Durham and Baldwin agreed that there should be some matters, such as trade with other countries, foreign affairs, land grants, which should be left to the Colonial Office, but that all matters affecting the colony only should be settled by the elected representatives of the people.

REBEL RINGLEADERS BANISHED

Durham remained in Canada only five months. When he arrived, he found the jails of Montreal and Toronto filled with men who had been imprisoned for taking part in the rebellion. In Upper Canada, two of the rebels had already been put to death. Durham promptly released from prison nearly all those who had been arrested. Eight of the ringleaders in Lower Canada, whose part in the rebellion had been very well known, he banished to the West Indies. They were willing to accept the penalty of banishment. They had taken part in a rebellion. They might have been tried for treason, and the penalty for treason is death. If they had been tried and convicted, their followers in Lower Canada might have taken up arms again. Banishing these rebels seemed a wise solution of the difficulties but unfortunately, in banishing them, Durham exceeded the powers that had been given him. His enemies in the British Parliament were quick to criticize his decision and forced the British Government to disallow his action. Durham was a proud man. Angry because the government did not support him, he promptly resigned.

DURHAM'S REPORT

Lord Durham remained in Canada long enough to complete his survey of the situation, and on his return to Great Britain he made a report to the British Government

which ushered in a new era in Canadian history. A year later, when he knew he had not long to live, he prophesied, "Canada will one day do justice to my memory."

Durham was right. His report laid the foundations of our present system of government. His most important recommendations were:

1. Upper and Lower Canada should be united into one province;
2. The Executive Council should be responsible to the Assembly;
3. Towns and villages should elect councils to look after their own local affairs;
4. There should be more opportunities for the young people to obtain an education;
5. A railway should be built connecting the Maritime Provinces with Canada.

Durham's Report marked a complete change in Great Britain's policy toward her colonies. Many people thought that the American colonies had been lost because they had been allowed too much control over their own government. These people were of the opinion that Canada, too, might be lost if the Canadians were given control over their own affairs. Others believed that as soon as colonies grew strong enough to govern themselves they would naturally want their independence. Lord Durham did not agree with either of these groups. The people of the colonies were British subjects, he said, and should have the same right to govern themselves as the people of the British Isles. He could not guarantee that freedom and self-government would keep the colonies loyal to Great Britain, but history has proved that his faith was justified.

Durham was not quite fair to the French Canadians. He was an Englishman. Naturally he believed that English

ways were the best. He found that the English-speaking settlers were, on the whole, more prosperous, better educated, and more advanced in their ways than the French-speaking settlers. He found more settlers of British descent who could give him good ideas about how the country should be governed. He honestly thought that the best thing for the French would be for them to speak the English language and adopt English ways. Perhaps if he had stayed longer in Canada he would have realized that the French would never agree to such suggestions. Fortunately, his son-in-law, Lord Elgin, who became governor ten years later, understood that problem better. Lord Elgin thought that the French-speaking Canadians should have the same freedom to manage their own affairs as the English-speaking settlers.

35. Victory to the Reformers

"And statesmen at her council met
    Who knew the season when to take
    Occasion by the hand, and make
The bounds of freedom wider yet
By shaping some august decree,
    Which kept her throne unshaken still,
    Broad-based upon her people's will
And compass'd by the inviolate sea."

ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON: *To the Queen*

Lord Durham had advised Responsible Government only if Upper and Lower Canada were united into one province. Then, as there were more English-speaking than French-speaking people in the two provinces, the English-speaking group would have control of the Assembly. The British Government was ready to unite the two provinces but was not yet convinced that it would be safe to grant Responsible Government to any colony.

Fortunately, Lord Durham's successor, Charles Poulett Thomson, was a clever diplomat, skilful in managing men and experienced in politics. He faced two difficult tasks. He had to persuade the two provinces to accept union. And he had to satisfy the people who wanted Responsible Government, who knew that Lord Durham had recommended it for Canada, without actually giving it.

Thomson's first job was to persuade the provinces to agree to the union. Since the Legislative Assembly in Lower Canada had been suspended owing to the rebellion, he had no difficulty there. He consulted the members of the Executive and Legislative Councils, the Château Clique. They agreed at once. The French-speaking people of Lower Canada did not like the idea of union, but there was nothing they could do about it.

Thomson had some difficulty, however, in persuading the people of Upper Canada, for the members of the Family Compact were afraid that they would not have as much power as they had previously had. He pointed out that Upper Canada had a large public debt while Lower Canada had a small one. If the provinces were united, the debt would be shared. When they were still reluctant to agree, he promised that English would be the official language and that the new capital would be at Kingston. When they still hesitated, Thomson promised that Upper Canada would have as many members in the new Assembly as Lower Canada. Lord Durham had intended that the representation in the Assembly should be in proportion to population as it is in Canada to-day. Although the population of Lower Canada was very much greater than that of Upper Canada, Lord Durham had not been afraid that the French-speaking group would get a majority in the Assembly. The English-speaking members from Lower

Canada, if they worked with the members from Upper Canada, could always provide a majority.

With all these promises Thomson was successful in persuading the Assembly of Upper Canada to agree to the union. In recognition of his success he was given the title Lord Sydenham. The Act of Union was passed by the British Parliament in 1840.

What the French Canadians thought about it we may learn from a speech made by Louis Lafontaine, an outstanding member of their group. Lafontaine had not taken part in the rebellion although he had sympathized with Papineau in the struggle for reforms.

"You have, without our consent," declared Lafontaine, "abolished our legislature, and forced on us a union which we do not desire. You have in official use suppressed our language. You have given Upper Canada, with little more than half our numbers, as many members in your new Parliament as you have given us. You have forced us, with a small debt, to assume a share of the large debt of Upper Canada. How can you ask us to help work such a system? We will not fight again, but we will watch and wait."

A STEP TOWARDS RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

Lord Sydenham had not been instructed by the Colonial Office to introduce Responsible Government. But he went half-way. He chose men for his Executive Council who belonged to the majority party in the Assembly. However, he continued to preside over the meetings of the Council. In Britain the Prime Minister presided over the meetings and in Canada to-day the Prime Minister does. Sydenham was his own prime minister. Unfortunately, after less than two years in Canada, Lord Sydenham died as a result of a fall from his horse.

ANOTHER STEP

Sir Charles Bagot, the next governor, took another step in the direction of Responsible Government. He asked the leaders of the Reform party, Robert Baldwin and Louis Lafontaine, to choose the members of the Council. Bagot, too, died before he had been two years in Canada.

A STEP BACKWARDS

Sir Charles Metcalfe, who succeeded Bagot, thought that these two governors had gone too far. He chose his own Executive Council and even took part in the elections. By accusing those who opposed him of being disloyal to the Queen, he managed to persuade a majority in the Assembly to support him. He, too, was less than two years in Canada, not long enough to find out whether his system would work.

THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT ACCEPTS THE IDEA

Meanwhile there was a change of government in Britain. The Colonial Minister of the new Liberal Government was Earl Grey, who had been a close friend of Lord Durham and agreed with him about Responsible Government for the colonies. The stage was now set for a governor-general who could carry out Lord Durham's recommendations.

THE BURNING OF THE PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS

When Upper and Lower Canada were united, there was, of course, difficulty about where the capital should be. Parliament met in Kingston, in Montreal, in Toronto or in Quebec, before the final decision was made to locate the capital at Ottawa. In 1849 Parliament was sitting in Montreal, and in that year there occurred a fire which destroyed the Parliament Buildings in that city.



Why was the burning of the Parliament Buildings in Montreal such a serious loss in the history of Canada?

The story of how this fire occurred, and what resulted from it, is a chapter of great importance in Canadian history.

In 1847, a great Scottish nobleman, Lord Elgin, came to Canada as governor-general. He was a very wise, capable, and courageous man. He was a son-in-law of Lord Durham and in agreement with Lord Durham's recommendations concerning Responsible Government in the colonies.

Lord Elgin understood the French Canadians better than his distinguished father-in-law had. He believed that the only way to get along with the French Canadians was to treat them with respect. One of his first actions was to restore French as an official language in the Legislative Assembly. It was obvious to him that it would be impossible to make the French-speaking Canadians adopt the English language. He realized that any attempt to make the French settlers become like the English would

only make them more determined to remain as they were. He maintained that if the French Canadians were treated fairly there would be no subjects more loyal.

When Lord Elgin came to Canada, though the Family Compact (or Conservative party, as it was now called) had a small majority in the Assembly, it was, he said, "as weak as shelled peas". When, in the election of 1847, the Reformers elected more members than the Conservatives, Lord Elgin immediately put the principles of Responsible Government into practice. He asked the Conservative members of the Council to resign and called upon Robert Baldwin and Louis Lafontaine to choose the members of a new Executive Council. When Bagot had done this, the British officials were not ready to approve. When Elgin did it, however, he had behind him the authority of the Colonial Office, which now approved of this step.

The new government had not been in office long when trouble arose. A bill called the Rebellion Losses Bill was proposed. There had been considerable damage to property during the rebellion and the government had already paid compensation to people in Upper Canada who had suffered losses. Now it was proposed to pay damages in Lower Canada also. In Upper Canada it had not been hard to tell which citizens had been rebels and which had not. In Lower Canada, however, many more people had been involved. The bill stated that damages should be paid to all who had suffered loss, unless they had been convicted or exiled. Lord Durham had set a great many prisoners free without bringing them to trial. It was quite possible that some rebels might collect payment for damage to property which they themselves had caused. It was freely said, indeed, that Louis Lafontaine proposed to reward his fellow-countrymen for rebelling against the

Queen. The members who supported the bill realized the difficulty, but they did not see what else they could do, for if they investigated every case bitter feelings would be stirred up again.

When the bill was proposed, a great outcry immediately arose against it, especially among the English element in the city of Montreal. However, Baldwin and Lafontaine had a solid majority in the Assembly and the bill was passed. Then the opponents of the bill turned to the Governor-General. They tried to persuade him not to sign it. We know from Lord Elgin's private letters to Lord Grey that he did not approve of the bill, but it had been passed by the Assembly elected by the people of Canada. The Executive Council approved it. Lord Elgin realized that the time had come to put the theory of Responsible Government to the test. Even though he was not personally in favour of the bill, he considered it his duty to accept the advice of the Executive Council. He gave his assent to the bill.

The result was one of the most disgraceful riots in Canadian history. When, on April 25, 1849, Lord Elgin came down to the Parliament Buildings in Montreal to sign the bill, some of the Conservative members made for the door of the House with hoots and groans. A mob gathered. When Lord Elgin left the Parliament Buildings, he was pelted with rotten eggs. It was with difficulty that he reached his carriage. As he drove away, he was followed by yells and curses.

That night a mob gathered in the Champs de Mars (Field of Mars) in Montreal. Stirred up by violent speeches, the mob surged toward the Parliament Buildings, where an evening session of the House was in progress. They heralded their approach by a shower of stones

through the windows. Then they invaded the buildings and drove out the members. Before long there arose the cry of "Fire!" That the fire was accidental, one would be glad to believe. Be that as it may, the outcome was that in a short time the Parliament Buildings were wrapped in flames. A few things—among them a portrait of Queen Victoria—were saved, but the buildings themselves, and most of their contents, were reduced to ashes. The Canadian Parliament was without a home. Canada had lost a mass of records which could not be replaced—records the loss of which has left Canadian history infinitely poorer.

The next day the mob, still unsatisfied, attacked the home of Louis Lafontaine, who had to flee for his life. It was against Lord Elgin, however, that the mob chiefly vented their anger. When he went, a week later, to receive from the House of Assembly an address of loyalty,

The Tory mob show their disapproval of the Rebellion Losses Bill by attacking Lord Elgin and his brother



he was subjected to a second attack. This time he barely escaped with his life. Though the governor was escorted by a guard of dragoons, the mob threw stones at him. Every panel of his carriage was smashed. He himself was slightly injured, and his brother, who was with him, seriously injured. On his return to his country house outside Montreal, he was compelled to make arrangements to stand a siege. When some of the ladies of his household ventured to go to church on Sunday morning, they were insulted in the streets. There were no municipal police in Montreal at that time, and it was days before the mob sobered down. So bitter was the feeling against Lord Elgin that he was expelled from membership in the Scottish societies of Montreal.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT AT LAST

Lord Elgin, however, did not falter in the course he had chosen. He stayed within his own grounds until the storm had blown over—not from cowardice, but merely because he was determined that no blood should be shed through him. Yet he did not yield an inch before the threats of the Montreal mob. By standing firm he established clearly and finally the principle that the government of Canada was responsible to the representatives of the Canadian people. Ever since Lord Elgin's day, the government of Canada has been in the hands of an Executive Council which has the support of the majority in the Legislature, and the Governor-General has occupied the impartial position which he occupies to-day—ready to work cordially with any political party. In other words, since Lord Elgin's day Canadians have enjoyed the blessing of self-government. For this Lord Elgin deserves no small share of the credit.

For Further Study

1. Do you know the name of the Prime Minister of Canada, of the Cabinet Ministers from your province, of the Premier of your province, of the Minister of Education, of the Mayor of your city? If there are any you do not know, find out now who holds these offices.

2. Do you know how an election is carried out? Conduct your class election as a municipal or provincial election is conducted. Prepare a voters list. Prepare ballots with the names of the candidates printed on them. Appoint a deputy returning officer and scrutineers. Have a voters' booth with a pencil tied to it. Did you know that a ballot marked in ink or in any coloured pencil other than the one provided is declared invalid?

3. Find the percentage that voted in your town in the last election. Why should everyone who has the right to vote exercise that right?

4. How is your municipal tax rate determined? What is the mill rate in your town or city? What services does your community give its citizens in return for the taxes? Can you find out how many cents out of every dollar of taxes in your community are spent on education? how much on roads? how much on parks? how much on libraries?

5. Taxes are higher than they were fifty years ago. Goods and services cost more than they did fifty years ago—that is one reason taxes are higher. Can you think of any other reasons?

6. There are people who say "We don't have to pay for it; the government provides it." What is wrong with that attitude?

7. Imagine you are a group of settlers in the backwoods of Upper Canada gathered round the stove in the country store, discussing your grievances. One could speak about the Clergy Reserves, another about the land held for speculation by the members of the Family Compact, another about the difficulty of getting roads and bridges built where they are needed, another about the lack of schools for the children,

and another might complain about the fact that only clergymen of the Church of England were allowed to perform the marriage service. What suggestions would you make for improving the situation?

8. If you had been there, would you have marched with Mackenzie? Give reasons for your answer.

9. Different groups might prepare biographical sketches or murals of Mackenzie, Papineau, or Howe.

10. Make a mural depicting the achievement of Responsible Government under Lord Elgin. You might use for one scene, Elgin signing the bill; for another, the burning of the Parliament Buildings; for another, Lafontaine fleeing from his home when the mob attacked it; for another, crowds in the street throwing missiles at Elgin's carriage.



CANADA

AT CONFEDERATION 1867

AND TODAY

VIII. *Confederation - A New Nation is Born*

36. Ten Provinces To-day

"But thou, my Country, dream not thou!
Wake and behold how night is done,—
How on thy breast, and o'er thy brow,
Bursts the uprising sun!"

CHARLES G. D. ROBERTS: *Canada*

TEN PROVINCES TO-DAY

Less than a century ago British North America consisted of a number of separate colonies which had little connection one with another, except that they all were under the British flag.

On the Atlantic seaboard there were Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island. Along the St. Lawrence and on the shores of the Great Lakes were the Canadas, Lower Canada, now known as Quebec, and Upper Canada, now known as Ontario. In the interior were the vast territories of the Hudson's Bay Company, stretching from Hudson Bay to the Rockies. Here to-day are the provinces of Manitoba, Alberta, and Saskatchewan. West of the Rockies, on Vancouver Island and on the West Coast, there were a few small settlements

and a few Hudson's Bay posts, the beginnings of the province of British Columbia.

Four provinces were united in 1867 to form the Dominion of Canada. Three more joined within the next six years, but it was not until 1949, eighty-two years after the act establishing the Dominion of Canada was passed, that the tenth of the provinces became a member of the Confederation.

THE PROVINCES OF CANADA

Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick,	1867
Manitoba,	1870
British Columbia,	1871
Prince Edward Island,	1873
Alberta and Saskatchewan,	1905
Newfoundland,	1949

37. A Vision of a Great Nation

"Theirs was the vision, theirs the faith far-seeing,
And theirs the force that forged our unity,
That called a nation into instant being
And stretched its boundaries from sea to sea."
CHARLES G. D. ROBERTS: *These Three Score Years*

Confederation was not a new idea. Many thoughtful men had, from time to time, suggested that the colonies of British North America should be united under one government. The Thirteen Colonies to the south had been separate colonies, each with its own governor and Assembly, until they united to win their independence from Great Britain. The United States were growing and prospering. The people of Canada and the Maritimes did not want to unite to win independence from Britain. They were happy to remain a part of the British Empire. Never-

theless many citizens thought that there were good reasons for forming a federation something like that of the United States, in which each province would look after its own affairs, and also send representatives to a Parliament which would look after the affairs of the whole country.

Several of the United Empire Loyalists had urged that the colonies should unite. Lord Durham, when he proposed the union of Upper and Lower Canada, had suggested that some day there should be one government for all the colonies. People talked of confederation, but for a long time it was only a dream which might some day come true in the far-distant future. And, of course, there were plenty of people who thought it was nonsense even to dream that a few scattered provinces would ever become a nation extending from sea to sea, from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

There were many difficulties to overcome. The population was small. There were great stretches of forest or plain separating the settlements. In the Maritime Provinces and in British Columbia almost all the settlers lived on the sea-coast, or on the rivers near the sea-coast. There was an unsettled wilderness between the Maritime Provinces and Canada, and the difficult barrier of rock and forest of the Canadian Shield north of the Great Lakes between Canada and the settlement in the Red River Valley. Travellers from Canada to the Red River Valley had to go through the United States or follow the old fur-traders' route by the Great Lakes, the Winnipeg River, Lake Winnipeg, and up the Red River. On the western plains there were only a few fur-trading posts and wandering tribes of Indians. Communication with British Columbia was either by a long and very difficult journey through the towering Rockies, or by ocean voyage round Cape

Horn at the southern tip of South America. There was no Panama Canal in those days.

THEY WANTED RAILWAYS

A century ago our country was still in the pioneer stage of development. Travel was still by road, river, lake, or canal. It took a week or two to travel from Quebec to Detroit, where now it takes less than a day by train, and only a few hours by plane. Each district was cut off from the others, and depended largely on its own resources.

The coming of the railway changed all this. George Stephenson's *Rocket*, the first successful steam locomotive, made its trial run in England in 1829. The first steam railway began operation in Canada in 1837. It was a very primitive railway. The line was less than sixteen miles long, connecting St. Johns on the Richelieu with La Prairie on the St. Lawrence, opposite Montreal. The rails were of wood, with thin bars of iron spiked to them. These strips of iron, when the sun warmed them, often curled up like a snake raising its head. As a result the rails came to be known as snake rails. The first year the cars were drawn by horses. In 1837 an engine, which its owners called the *Kitten*, was imported from England. The governor and several distinguished citizens were invited to

The *Kitten*, Canada's first steam locomotive, draws an admiring crowd



be passengers on the trial run. When they were all on board, and the word was given to start, *The Kitten* would not budge. Finally an engineer from the United States advised, "Give her more wood and more water." That was done and soon the *Kitten* puffed away, attaining the great speed of twenty miles an hour. For ten years this little railway was the only one in Canada.

Railways were bringing prosperity to the United States. The people of Canada wanted railways, too. But railways are very expensive to build and to operate. Canada had a small population and few men with large amounts of money to invest in such expensive experiments. By 1850 Canada still had only sixty-six miles of railway. Then the boom in building railways in Canada began. By 1860 there were two thousand miles of railway in Canada. Several short lines were built. Every village hoped that a railway would be built to connect it with the larger towns and cities. Those villages which were fortunate enough to be on or near a railway line prospered.

By 1860 a line was completed from Rivière du Loup through Lévis, opposite Quebec, to Montreal, where it crossed the Victoria Bridge; then west through Kingston, Brockville, Oshawa, and Toronto to Sarnia. There was a branch from Montreal to Portland, Maine, by which goods could be shipped in and out of the country when the St. Lawrence was blocked by ice during the winter. In the Maritimes, there were a few short lines, not totalling more than two hundred miles.

Great was the enthusiasm in every town and village along these lines as the railways neared completion. In Montreal a sum of over $40,000 was collected for a celebration. When the first through train ran from Toronto to Montreal in 1856, a crowd waited at every station.



Crowds of people cheer the first train to run between Toronto and Montreal

Loud cheers greeted the president and the directors when the train pulled in. Speeches were made at every stop prophesying the unbounded prosperity the railway would bring.

The truth is that the railways made Canada a nation. They brought Canada out of the pioneer stage by opening up trade between the provinces and with other nations on a scale that the settlers had hardly dared to imagine. They broke down the barriers of distance between the provinces and thus made confederation a possibility. As early as 1858 they made it possible for Canadians to grasp the vision of a "Great British Empire of the North . . . with its face to the south and its back to the pole, with its right and left resting on the Atlantic and the Pacific, and with the telegraph and the iron road connecting the two oceans."

Many attempts were made to persuade the British Government to provide funds to help build railways which would connect the Maritime Provinces with the Canadas.

When these failed, the people of the colonies began to realize that, if they were to have railways, they would have to do something about it themselves. They would have to work together and build them. Indeed, some of the strongest support for confederation came from those who hoped that together the provinces could do what no one of them could do by itself—build a railway to connect the eastern provinces and extend a line to the Pacific coast.

THEY WERE AFRAID THEY MIGHT LOSE THE WEST

As the good farm lands of the east were being filled up, newcomers began to look elsewhere for good land. Many of them went to the United States. By this time, the people of the east knew that there was good farm land in the Red River Valley and west of it. They suspected, too, that if the Canadians did not occupy it, the Americans would. The control of all the land drained by rivers flowing into Hudson Bay was in the hands of the Hudson's Bay Company, but the people of the Red River Valley were becoming restless under the rule of the Hudson's Bay Company. They were trading with the Americans at St. Paul. There were people at Red River who thought that they should join the United States. There were others who thought that they should join Canada. And there were some who thought they should be left alone as they were. Canada sent a petition to the government of Great Britain asking for control of the Red River district.

American settlers were pouring into Oregon, south of British Columbia. The Hudson's Bay Company had had fur-trading posts on the Columbia River, but, when settlers poured in, the fur trade was ruined. The Americans demanded that the boundary should be at parallel 54° 40′ which would have given them all the southern part of

British Columbia. The British thought they had a right to a boundary as far south as the 42nd parallel of latitude. By the treaty of Oregon in 1846, the boundary was set at the 49th parallel. The fur-traders moved north of the boundary. It was obvious that American settlers would spread across the border before long unless there were British settlers there to hold the lands.

Here, too, the importance of building a railway was quite clear. The stress of the gold-rush and the part played by Governor Douglas has been told in the chapter on "The Gold Colony". Governor Douglas, with the help of a troop of soldiers, had maintained law and order in the name of Great Britain. The miners had come from all over the world and few of them cared what flag flew over the gold camps as long as they could find gold. British Columbia was very far from Great Britain, very far from Canada, and very close to the neighbouring states of Washington and Oregon. There was danger that British Columbia might be lost to the Americans. If a railway could be built connecting it with Upper Canada, British Columbia might be persuaded to join the eastern provinces.

WAR WITH THE UNITED STATES WAS A POSSIBILITY

To-day Canada and the United States are good neighbours. Twice they have fought side by side in World Wars. They have worked together to maintain peace. But it was not always so. The descendants of the Loyalists who had had to leave the United States after the American War of Independence feared their former neighbours. Some of them, remembering the stories their grandparents had told them of their sufferings, hated the Americans. Many Americans thought that they should add Canada to their

country. The boundaries were not carefully defined, and there was always a possibility of war about them. There was danger that Great Britain and the United States might go to war and Canada would be involved.

At the time when leaders in British North America were working for confederation there was very real possibility of war with the United States. From 1861 to 1865 the northern states and the southern states had been engaged in a bitter Civil War. The northern states suspected that Britain was friendly to the southern states. When the war ended, with the northern states victorious, the relations between Britain and the United States were not at all friendly. The people of the colonies realized that if they were united under one government they would be in a better position to defend themselves and drive back possible invaders.

THE POLITICAL DEADLOCK

The need to work together to build railways, the need to take steps to see that the West was not lost to Canada and to Great Britain, the need to be united in case of war with the United States—these were all-important arguments in favour of forming a confederation. But the factor that made Canadian leaders see that they must have confederation NOW, was the political situation in Canada.

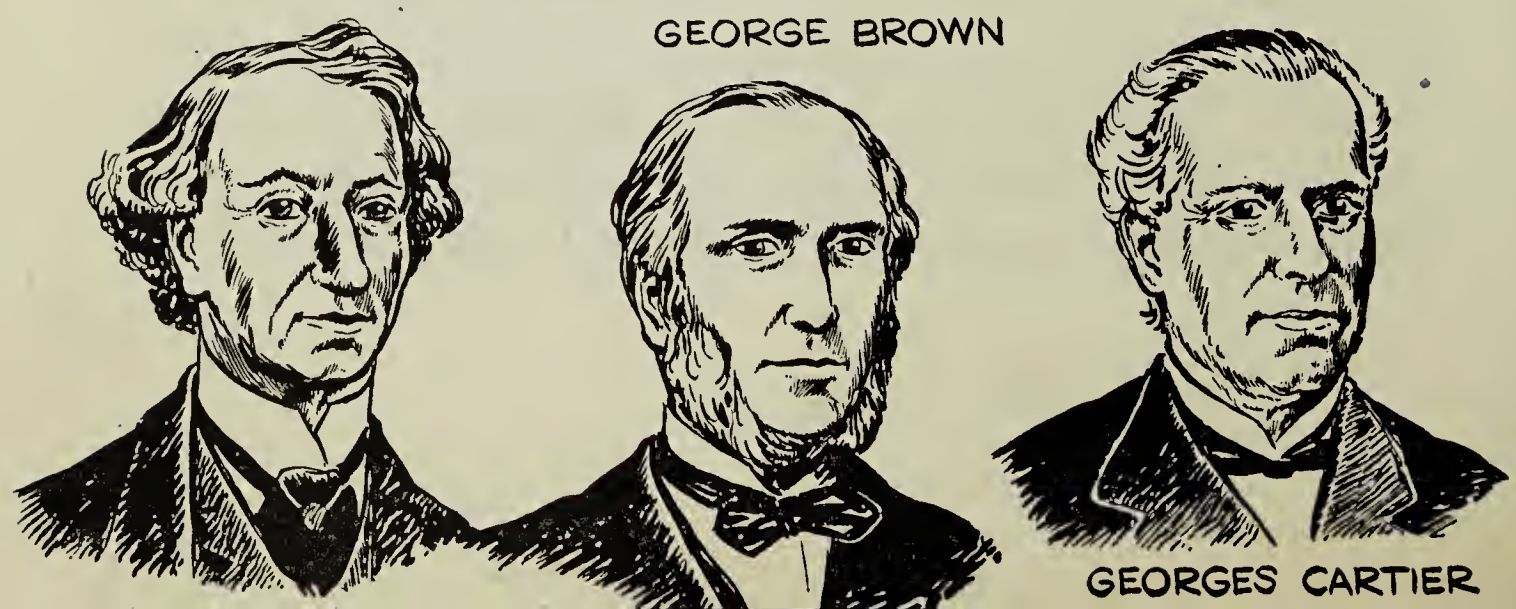
The union of Upper and Lower Canada had not worked out as Lord Durham had hoped it would. The people of Lower Canada were afraid that the people of Upper Canada would try to force them to give up the French language and the Roman Catholic religion. They had some grounds for this fear because, as we have seen, Lord Durham would have pressed them to adopt the language and the customs of the English. Moreover, there can be no doubt that there were many people in Upper Canada who

would have favoured making the French accept the English language and the Protestant religion.

There were two political parties, the Conservatives, and the Reformers. These parties were so evenly balanced that neither party could keep a majority in the Legislative Assembly long enough to look after the business of the country. Elections were held again and again, but still neither party gained a large enough majority to stay in power for any length of time.

One of the reasons for this difficulty was that Lower and Upper Canada sent the same number of members to the Legislative Assembly. Often almost all the members from Upper Canada favoured a law that was proposed and almost all the members from Lower Canada opposed it. The Reformers began to agitate for "Rep. by Pop.", that is, that each province should have *representation* in the Assembly in proportion to its *population*. That is how the number of representatives for each province in Parliament is determined to-day.

But there were difficulties in the way. When the Act of Union was passed Lower Canada had had the larger population but it had not been allowed to send more representatives to the Assembly. Why should it agree to "Rep. by Pop." now that Upper Canada had the larger population? As Lower Canada would not agree, it would be impossible to pass an act to establish "Rep. by Pop.". Some other solution had to be discovered. Now men who had been lukewarm about confederation saw that it offered the best solution of their difficulties.

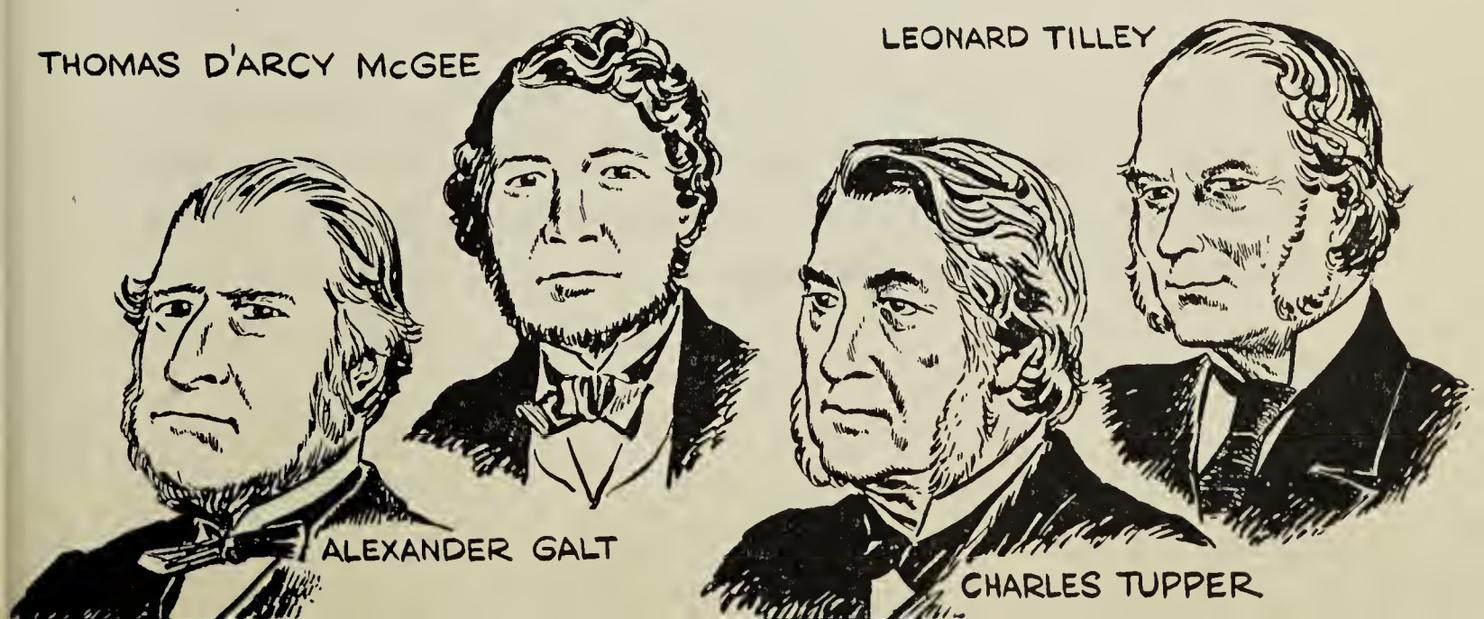


38. The Fathers of Confederation

"Let us now praise famous men
And our fathers who begat us."
Ecclesiasticus, xliv, 1

Confederation could never have been achieved without the courage and leadership of a small number of able statesmen who, fortunately for Canada, were in office at the right time. They had to set aside their party differences. Reformers worked with Conservatives. Men who had argued against each other on political platforms and in the Legislature, men who had been bitter opponents, had to forget their differences and work together for a common cause.

The greatest of the Fathers of Confederation were John A. Macdonald, George Brown, Georges Etienne Cartier, Alexander Galt, Thomas D'Arcy McGee, Charles Tupper, and Leonard Tilley. Each made a notable contribution. Macdonald was the diplomat, the man who by his charm and tact could persuade people to work together, and the leader who, once the plan was adopted, would not give up until success was achieved. Brown sacrificed his own political career to work with Macdonald whom he disliked. Cartier brought in Lower Canada. Galt was the first to present a plan for a larger union in the Assembly of Canada and the man who worked out the financial arrangements for confederation. McGee, possibly the greatest orator Canada has ever known, made the people thrill to the possibilities of the future of a united Canada.



Tilley brought in New Brunswick, and Tupper, a powerful fighter, brought Nova Scotia into confederation against the will of most of the people and kept it in the Dominion in spite of powerful opposition.

We honour these men for the wisdom, the faith, and the determination which created the Dominion of Canada.

JOHN A. MACDONALD

In the early summer of the year 1820 there sailed into the Gulf of St. Lawrence the good ship, the *Earl of Buckinghamshire*, carrying immigrants to Canada. Among the passengers crowding the decks was a small bright-eyed boy of five, whose name was John Alexander Macdonald. No one on board the ship could have guessed that this little lad was destined to be one of Canada's greatest men and to be Prime Minister for many years.

John A. Macdonald was born in Glasgow, Scotland, the son of Hugh Macdonald, a manufacturer of bandana handkerchiefs. When Hugh Macdonald failed in business in Scotland, he brought his family to Canada to make a fresh start. He settled in Kingston, but unfortunately he was no more successful there than he had been in Scotland. The Macdonalds knew what it was to be very poor.

Since parents in those days had to pay fees to send their children to school, the Macdonalds were able to give their son only five years at Kingston Grammar School. But he was a clever boy, and after a short time in a lawyer's office, he had learned enough about the law to open his own office. In 1844, the young lawyer was elected by the people of Kingston to represent them in the Legislative Assembly. He showed such outstanding ability in persuading people to do what he thought they should that within ten years he became leader of the Conservative party for Upper Canada and Prime Minister.

Macdonald was gay and light-hearted. Like Abraham Lincoln, he had an almost inexhaustible supply of jokes and stories which he delighted to share with anyone who would listen. He loved even to joke at his own expense. He had a very large nose, and whenever a cartoon of him appeared in any of the newspapers the artist exaggerated the size of his nose. One day the barber who was shaving him took hold of his nose and said it was not every man who could take the Prime Minister by the nose. "No," replied Macdonald, quick as a flash, "and *you* have your hands full."

John A., as he was always called, had a great gift for making friends. He was a good speaker, always able to interest and amuse an audience, and few people ever got the better of him in an argument.

GEORGE BROWN

In 1843 another young Scotsman named George Brown came to Canada. He settled in Toronto, and with his father started a newspaper, the *Globe*, still published under the name of *The Globe and Mail*. George Brown was a skilful journalist and the *Globe* was a great success, especially among the settlers of Scottish descent. In fact, it came to be known jestingly as "The Scotchman's Bible". In his editorials Brown urged Canada to look to the west, declaring over and over again, "Canada's western boundary should be the Pacific Ocean." He criticized the policies of John A. Macdonald's party and supported those of the Reformers. By 1851 he had gained such a following that he was elected to the Legislative Assembly where he soon became the leader of the group of Reformers who were nick-named "Clear Grits". They got this name because they said they were "all sand and no dirt, clear grit all the way through". However, no political party of that time

could claim it had "no dirt", for all politicians made very bitter attacks against their opponents.

George Brown was a sober, earnest man who disapproved strongly of Macdonald's flippant attitude toward life. Macdonald said Brown was "a pompous fraud" who took himself and everything else too seriously. They said very harsh and cruel things about each other. For a long time they did not speak to each other when they met on the street.

When political deadlock developed, when neither party had a large enough majority to complete the business of the Assembly, George Brown began to argue in his newspaper and in speeches for "Rep. by Pop.". Unfortunately everyone knew he was very unfriendly to Roman Catholics. Because he was the leader of this campaign, the people of Lower Canada became more suspicious than ever of any suggestion which came from Upper Canada. As a result it became even more difficult to solve the deadlock and even more important to do something about it and to do it at once.

Lord Monck, the Governor-General of Canada, undertook to try to break the deadlock. He realized that all parties would have to work together to solve their problems. The difficulty was that Macdonald and Brown were so violently opposed to each other that it seemed hopeless to expect them to work together for anything. But Lord Monck did not despair, and at last, through his influence, the two leaders were persuaded to forget their antagonism for the sake of their country.

Brown made the first move. For many years he had been advocating that each province should have a legislature to handle its own affairs and that there should be a parliament with representatives from both provinces to handle



Why was this "the most famous handshake in Canadian history"?

matters which concerned both of them. One day he told two Conservative members that he would be willing to join a union government if it was pledged to bring this change about. Macdonald at once agreed to accept this offer. One morning the members of the Legislature were astonished to see these two men shaking hands and chatting together in a friendly way. After "the most famous handshake in Canadian history", a union or coalition government was formed to break the deadlock.

Many years later, Macdonald, writing about the events of that time, stated, "We acted together, dined at public places together, played euchre in crossing the Atlantic, and went into society in England together. And yet on the day he resigned, we resumed our positions and ceased to speak."

GEORGES ETIENNE CARTIER

Another important figure in bringing about confederation was Georges Etienne Cartier, a descendant of a brother of Jacques Cartier. Without his leadership

the people of Lower Canada could not have been persuaded to accept confederation.

When he was a young man, Cartier had supported Papineau in his attempts to bring about reforms in the government. Though not a gifted poet, Cartier wrote a song which became the marching song of the French rebels. The last stanza may be translated into English thus:

> "Originally subjects of France, now subjects of Britain . . .
> Which of the two countries do we prefer?
> But have we not, I ask you, still more powerful bonds?
> Before all let us prefer our own country!
> Before all let us be Canadians!"

When the rebellion broke out in 1837 Cartier shouldered his musket and fought beside his fellow-citizens. When the rebels were defeated he fled to Vermont, where he had the unusual experience of reading in a Quebec paper an account of his own death. As soon as the men who had taken part in the rebellion were allowed to return to Canada, he came back to his law office in Montreal. He always maintained that he had been fighting, not against the British Government, but against the Château Clique.

In 1849 he was elected to the Legislative Assembly by the citizens of Montreal. He later became the leader of the Conservative party for Lower Canada and shared with John A. Macdonald the responsibility of heading the Cabinet. To-day there is one head of the Cabinet, known as the Prime Minister. In those days, though one was called the Prime Minister, there had to be two who shared the responsibility, one from Upper Canada and one from Lower Canada.

When talk about confederation began, many of the people of Lower Canada were afraid that the French-speaking people of their province might be treated

unfairly, since the majority of the citizens of the other provinces were English-speaking. Cartier would not agree to "Rep. by Pop." as long as there were only the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada in the Union. But he was ready to work for a larger plan of a confederation of the two Canadas with the Maritime Provinces. In a confederation each province would have a legislature of its own to make laws about its own affairs, therefore the people of Lower Canada need fear nothing from the plan.

Cartier realized that something had to be done about the deadlock. He thought that confederation of the Canadas and the Maritime Provinces would be the best possible solution. He saw, too, that the provinces working together would be better able to defend themselves in case of war, and better able to undertake such large enterprises as the building of railways.

Cartier knew that many of the people of Lower Canada were afraid of any change. His special contribution to confederation was in persuading the French-speaking Canadians that they would gain more than they would lose. He convinced them that they would have the safeguards they needed to preserve their laws and the free exercise of their religion.

Years later Macdonald said, "Cartier was bold as a lion. He was just the man I wanted. But for him Confederation could not have carried."

ALEXANDER TILLOCH GALT

Alexander Galt was the business man of confederation. He was the son of John Galt, the Scottish novelist, who founded Guelph and after whom the city of Galt is named. Galt, realizing that the country needed railways if it was to develop, took an active part in campaigns to promote the building of railways. He was one of the first members

to speak in the Assembly in favour of confederation. Throughout the conferences that brought confederation about, Galt's knowledge of the country and his understanding of finance was of great value. He became Finance Minister in the first Dominion Cabinet.

THOMAS D'ARCY MCGEE

In the year 1857 a young Irish journalist named Thomas D'Arcy McGee came to Montreal. He had already had an exciting and adventurous career. He had taken part in a rebellion in Ireland and, when the rebellion failed, he had escaped to the United States disguised as a priest. There he earned a living as a newspaper man and took an active part in politics. However, when some Irish-Canadians in Montreal asked him to come there to start an Irish-Canadian newspaper, he was glad to accept their invitation. It was not long before the people of Montreal were so favourably impressed by his editorials and his speeches that they elected him to the Assembly.

One of the difficulties in the way of bringing about a union of all the provinces was that there was no common feeling, no spirit of nationality among them. Few had grasped the vision of a Canadian nation. This vision D'Arcy McGee set himself to create. First in his newspaper, then in the Canadian Legislature, he preached the gospel of the "new nationality". "I look forward to the day," he said in Parliament in 1860, "when we shall be known, not as Upper and Lower Canadians, Nova Scotians, or New Brunswickians, but as members of a nation designated as the Six United Provinces." D'Arcy McGee did not live to see the day, but now we are members of a nation, not of six provinces but ten, not called the Six United Provinces, but Canada.

"A Canadian nationality . . . not French-Canadian, not British-Canadian, nor Irish-Canadian; patriotism rejects the prefix . . . is, in my opinion," declared McGee, "what we should look forward to, that is what we ought to labour for, that is what we ought to be prepared to defend to the death."

By his speeches and by his writings McGee helped to build up a feeling of pride in Canada and confidence in the future of our country. He appealed especially to the younger generation. Inspired by Thomas D'Arcy McGee, there arose a party called Young Canada, whose members talked of the day when there would be, not a handful of separate provinces, but a great nation established in the northern half of the continent.

DR. CHARLES TUPPER

Charles Tupper, like Georges Etienne Cartier, came from a family which had been in America for over two centuries. His great-grandfather had moved from Connecticut to Nova Scotia in 1763. Charles was an ambitious lad. He taught school to earn enough money to pay his way through college. He took his degree in medicine in Edinburgh, and returned to practise in his native province.

The young doctor very soon became interested in politics. His first political success came when he ran for the Legislative Assembly against Joseph Howe and defeated him. Like Joseph Howe, Tupper was eager to provide better schools for the children of Nova Scotia. He believed that the schools should be paid for, as they are to-day, by taxes instead of by fees from the parents of the children. Tupper realized that any leader who persuaded the Assembly to pass a law making property-owners pay a tax for schools would be defeated in the next election.

But he believed, too, that in time people would see that the tax for schools was the right way to provide for education. The Assembly passed the law to establish the tax, and sure enough, Tupper was defeated in the next election.

However, Dr. Tupper was not out of office long. In 1864, once more a member of the Assembly, he proposed the union of the three Maritime Provinces, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island.

SAMUEL LEONARD TILLEY

Samuel Leonard Tilley was a descendant of John Tilley who had come to America from England in the famous *Mayflower*, the first ship to bring settlers to the New England colonies. Tilley's grandfather was one of the Loyalists who had come to New Brunswick after the American War of Independence.

Unlike the other Fathers of Confederation, Tilley was not eager to enter politics. He was not even in the province when he was first elected to the Assembly. His fellow-citizens decided that he was the right man to represent them in the Assembly and persuaded him to be their representative.

Leaders from Canada and the Maritime Provinces meet at Charlottetown to discuss a union of their provinces



Both Tupper and Tilley risked their political careers by favouring confederation. The people of their provinces were not ready for it. But these two statesmen were convinced that Nova Scotia and New Brunswick should join confederation, and, in time, they convinced the people.

39. The Dominion of Canada

"We stand
With eyes unsealed, with wondering hearts elate,
To view the task complete as our great Fathers planned".
CHARLES G. D. ROBERTS: *These Three Score Years*

THE CHARLOTTETOWN CONFERENCE

The leaders of the Maritime Provinces, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, had agreed to send representatives to Charlottetown to discuss a union of their provinces. They realized that together they would be better able to develop trade, to take steps to build railways, and, if necessary, to defend themselves against attack from the United States. The date was set for September 1, 1864. The place was Charlottetown, the capital of Prince Edward Island.

The leaders in Canada, thinking that this was an opportunity they must not miss, asked permission to send delegates to meet with those from the Maritime Provinces. Macdonald, Brown, Cartier, Galt, and McGee arrived in Charlottetown a few days after the representatives of the Maritimes had begun their conference. Whenever they had a chance, they talked about the advantages all the provinces could gain from confederation. They predicted that trade would increase by leaps and bounds once the provinces united. They spoke about plans for a railway to connect the Maritimes and Canada. The representatives



from the Maritime Provinces knew that they could never pay for this railway themselves, and they had lost hope that the British Government would help them. This talk about a railway interested them.

When the visitors from Upper and Lower Canada invited the delegates from the Maritimes to come to another conference in October in Quebec, the invitation was accepted. Two representatives from Newfoundland also were present.

The Quebec Conference took place behind closed doors, and no accounts of its discussions were reported to the newspapers. We know very little about the arguments that took place, very little about how the delegates were persuaded to forget their differences and to agree on the seventy-two resolutions which were drafted as a plan for confederation. But we know that after long discussion they reached an agreement.

The plan agreed upon in Quebec in 1864 became the basis for the British North America Act which established the Dominion of Canada. There was to be a central government to which each province elected representatives. The number of representatives was to be determined according to the population of the province. George Brown's long struggle for "Rep. by Pop." was won. Lower Canada no longer objected to it, because the plan was that each province would have a legislature of its own in which laws would be made about local affairs such as schools and roads. The people of Lower Canada did not need to fear that they would lose the right to speak their own language or to have their own schools. The Federal or Dominion Government was to have the power to look after matters concerning all the provinces, such as money and banking, postal services, railroads which ran through more than one province, and defence.

THE LEADERS RETURN TO THEIR PROVINCES

The Fathers of Confederation had spent many days discussing the plan and they were convinced that it was wise. Then they went home to obtain approval from their provinces. But the people at home had not had the same opportunities to consider the advantages that confederation would bring. The only provinces which approved were Upper and Lower Canada, where the people, weary of the political deadlock, were willing to accept confederation as a way out of their difficulties. Lower Canada was ready to accept a system which would remove the threat to their language and their religion. Moreover, Upper Canada was, of all the provinces, the one most interested in forming a confederation which would be able to take over the West and keep it for Canada.

Prince Edward Island voted against confederation. Carter and Shea, the representatives from Newfoundland, went home very enthusiastic about entering confederation. When an election was held in Newfoundland, the party favouring confederation won but the leaders realized that, unless the other Maritime Provinces joined, there would not be much point in Newfoundland deciding to do so. The Newfoundlanders decided to wait and watch developments.

Leonard Tilley went back to New Brunswick and called for an election, so that the people of the province would have an opportunity to vote for or against confederation. The people who opposed the plan worked very hard to defeat it. One of the difficulties was that the provinces would have to give up their right to collect customs duties, which had been a considerable part of the revenue of each province. Now, the Federal Government would collect the duties and the provinces would have to find new taxes to provide for their own expenses.

The men who opposed confederation frightened the people by telling them that "every horse, every cow, every sheep they owned would be taxed and even their poultry would not escape". The plan drawn up at Quebec had stated that out of the customs duties eighty cents for every person in the province would be given back to the provincial government. One speaker told his listeners about his conversation with his little boy. "Father," said the little boy, "what is my country?" "My son, you have no country," his father replied, "Mr. Tilley has sold us to the Canadians for eighty cents a head."

These tactics were successful. Perhaps Tilley and the others who had been to the conference were so thoroughly convinced that their plan was good that they did not try hard enough to explain it to other people. Tilley and his

party were defeated and the Assembly voted against the plan for confederation.

Dr. Tupper saw that it would be no use even considering the question in Nova Scotia unless New Brunswick would agree to it.

CIRCUMSTANCES FAVOUR THE PLAN

This was all very discouraging. Fortunately several things happened to make people change their minds. The government of Britain was in favour of the colonies uniting and instructed the governors of the provinces that they should work to help bring about confederation.

For over ten years there had been a Reciprocity Treaty which provided for free trade in many products between the United States and the provinces of British North America. Now the Americans gave notice that this agreement was to end in 1866. The people of the Maritime Provinces and of Canada saw that they must develop more trade with each other and with other countries or go broke. The Civil War between the northern and southern states had ended. The victorious north resented the sympathy Great Britain had shown to the south. The north had a well-trained army, and there were quite a few people in the United States who thought that they should go to war with Great Britain. These agitators suggested that they could gain Canada for themselves. Fortunately the American Government decided not to make war.

There was, however, an invasion from the United States. An organization called the Fenians, made up largely of Irishmen who had left Ireland because they hated Great Britain, had become quite powerful in the United States. These Fenians were eager to strike a blow against Great Britain at any time and in any place. There were armed bands of Fenians on the border of New

Brunswick, ready to strike. One band did cross the Niagara River and seize a village in Upper Canada, but it did not take the Canadians long to organize a volunteer force to drive the Fenians out of the country. There was not really very much danger from these half-organized bands with their mad scheme to seize the provinces of British North America, but at the time it made the people realize the need for union in case of attack.

Another election was held in New Brunswick. The people had had time to think the plan over. This time Leonard Tilley and the supporters of confederation were elected.

There was so much opposition to confederation in Nova Scotia that Dr. Tupper did not take the risk of having an election. In a vigorous debate the forces supporting confederation persuaded the Assembly to send members to London to draw up a plan for confederation.

Now four provinces were ready to unite — Upper Canada, henceforth to be called Ontario; Lower Canada, henceforth to be called Quebec; New Brunswick; and Nova Scotia. Prince Edward Island was still unwilling to join and Newfoundland was still waiting to see what would happen. In the election of 1869 the party opposing confederation came into power, and Newfoundland did not again consider joining the Dominion for many years.

THE LONDON CONFERENCE

In 1866 delegates from the four provinces met in London, England. The Colonial Secretary presided at the meetings. Few changes were made in the draft which had been drawn up in Quebec. An observer at the conference who was greatly impressed by Macdonald's skill in managing men said that he was "the ruling genius and the spokesman" of the conference. This same observer said

that the representatives of the different provinces were watching "as eager dogs watch a rat hole . . . a snap on one side might have provoked a snap on the other and put an end to the concord . . . Macdonald, while he was making for a point ahead, was never for a moment unconscious of any of the rocks among which he had to steer."

THE NEW NATION IS BORN

Fortunately the delegates agreed. The amended resolutions of the Quebec Conference became the British North America Act. A royal proclamation declared that the union of Quebec, Ontario, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia should be effective July 1, 1867. Thus was born a new nation.

There was a long discussion about a suitable name for the new country. Some of the suggestions were New Britain, Laurentia, Britannia, Cabotia, Columbia, Acadia. However, it was decided that the name would be Canada, and that the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada would take the names of Ontario and Quebec. Then the question arose, "Should it be the Kingdom of Canada?" They did not like that. Then someone suggested "Dominion". There is a story, which may be true, that someone who knew the Scriptures quoted, "And his dominion shall be from sea even to sea, and from the river even to the ends of the earth." The name Dominion of Canada was chosen and on Canada's coat of arms stands the Latin inscription, "A mari usque ad mare", which means "From sea to sea".

Macdonald leads the Canadian delegation at a conference in London, England. This was the last step in the birth of the Dominion of Canada



As Canadians gained more and more control over their own affairs, many people began to object to the word "Dominion". They thought that our country should be called "Canada", not "The Dominion of Canada". As a result of their objections, the words "Dominion of" were dropped from all official documents in 1949.

For Further Study

1. Have the class form seven groups, each group to prepare a biographical sketch of one of the following: Macdonald, Brown, Galt, Cartier, McGee, Tupper, Tilley.

2. Dramatize a banquet during the Quebec Conference. The guests will be the leading Fathers of Confederation. Each should make a short speech giving his reasons for favouring confederation. (Read the reports of the speeches made at the Charlottetown and Quebec Conferences as reported by Edward Whelan in *The Union of the Provinces.*)

3. On a map of Canada illustrate the growth of the Dominion of Canada from the four original provinces to the present day. Colour the four original provinces red, but mark in the boundary lines between them. Use a different colour for each province as it joined confederation. Put the date of its joining under the name of each province.

4. Why do you think the British Government favoured confederation?

5. Suppose you were a supporter of the plan for confederation. What arguments might you use to convince a neighbour who opposed the plan? What do you think his arguments against it would be?

6. Draw the coat of arms of Canada and of each province. Find out what the mottoes mean.

7. Each province has a flower as an emblem. Find out what the floral emblem of each province is and make a drawing of each.

8. Design a book cover using the floral emblem of your own province.

9. Could you design a border to be carved in stone to decorate a government building at Ottawa, using the floral emblems of all the provinces?

10. Dramatize a discussion of the committee which chose the coat of arms and floral emblem for your province. In this dramatization suggestions for other designs which might have been suitable should be brought forward.

11. How many representatives does your province send to the House of Commons? How many to the Senate? (You can get a copy of the *Canada Year Book* from the Dominion Bureau of Statistics. You will find it very helpful. You should learn to use it.)

12. In the 1917 and 1927 issues you can find many stamps commemorating confederation. Add some to your collection.



BRITISH COLUMBIA



CANADA
COAT OF ARMS



PRINCE EDWARD IS.



ALBERTA

EMBLEMS OF THE PROVINCES OF CANADA



NEW BRUNSWICK



SASKATCHEWAN



ONTARIO



NOVA SCOTIA



MANITOBA



QUEBEC



NEWFOUNDLAND

IX. *From Sea to Sea*

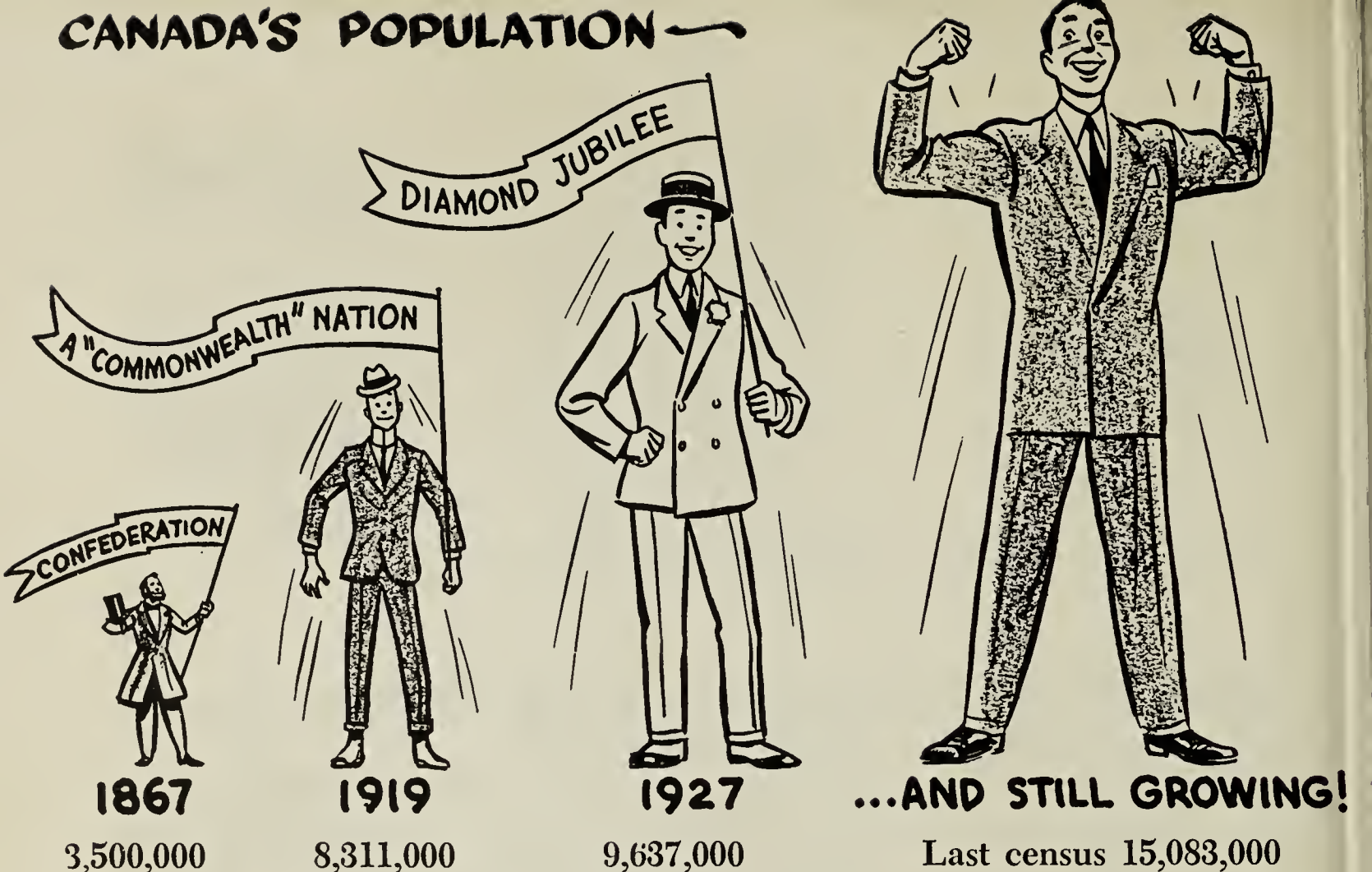
40. Launching the Young Nation

"I see, in the not remote distance, one great nationality, bound, like the shield of Achilles, by the blue rim of the ocean."

THOMAS D'ARCY MCGEE: *Speech in the Legislative Assembly of Canada, 1862*

The new Dominion of Canada was very different from the Canada we know to-day. It consisted of the four provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Ontario, and Quebec. Of these provinces, Quebec is to-day four times as large in area as it was in 1867, and Ontario three times as large. In fact the Dominion of 1867 was less than one-tenth the area of our present Canada. The population was less than a quarter of what it is to-day, only about three millions, over a million of whom were of French descent. Even in all the area which now makes up Canada there were, including the Indians and Eskimos, less than four million people.

There were no really large cities. Montreal had only about one hundred thousand inhabitants. Toronto had only sixty thousand. There were only nine towns with more than ten thousand inhabitants. The great majority of the Canadian people lived on farms or in small villages.



West of the Great Lakes the only centres of population were at Winnipeg on the Red River, at Victoria on Vancouver Island, and in the mining-camps of British Columbia. And these settlements were really only tiny villages in great unsettled areas. The rest of the West was inhabited by Indians and a few fur-traders.

MACDONALD, THE FIRST PRIME MINISTER

Sir John A. Macdonald was Prime Minister of Canada for the first six years after the Dominion was established. It was a difficult time, but Macdonald was equal to the task. He had tremendous problems to face. Not only were there provinces to be brought into Confederation, but those provinces which had entered it had to be satisfied that the whole idea had not been a mistake. The Canadian Confederation, as Macdonald himself put it, was still "in the gristle" and had not yet "hardened into bone".

The first general election was held in the summer of 1867. In Ontario, Quebec, and New Brunswick the supporters of Macdonald's party were successful, but in Nova Scotia they met a crushing defeat. Joseph Howe, the idol of the people of that province, carried on a campaign to withdraw Nova Scotia from the Dominion. Out of nineteen members elected, only Dr. Charles Tupper was a supporter of the Macdonald Government. The rest were pledged to regain Nova Scotia's independence.

If Nova Scotia withdrew, it would be a serious blow to the new Dominion. When Howe went to England to try to persuade the British Government to allow Nova Scotia to withdraw, Macdonald sent Dr. Tupper to present the other side of the case. Tupper succeeded in persuading Howe to give up his plan. Then, when Howe came home, Sir John A. Macdonald went to Halifax to meet him. Few politicians have ever been more clever than John A. in managing men and bringing them to accept his point of view. He promised Nova Scotia "better terms", that is, a larger share of the Dominion revenue, and he persuaded Howe to accept a place in the Dominion Cabinet. Many of Howe's followers felt that he had betrayed them, but Howe was convinced that further attempts to withdraw from Confederation were useless.

CANADA ACQUIRES THE HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY TERRITORIES

Next, Macdonald turned his attention to completing the union of the British provinces in North America. There still remained to be brought into the fold not only Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland, but also British Columbia and the vast north-western territories controlled by the Hudson's Bay Company. The Fathers of Confederation had dreamed of a Dominion stretching from

sea to sea. Macdonald set to work to make that dream come true.

His first step was to gain control of the Hudson's Bay Company's territories. The "Great Company" did not want to give up the rights it had held for nearly two centuries. However, Macdonald convinced the British Government that the time had come when this vast area should no longer be under the control of a trading company. In 1869 the Hudson's Bay Company had to surrender its rights. Canada agreed to pay the Company $1,500,000 and to allow it to retain the land about its trading-posts and one-twentieth of the land in the fertile belt of the West. Out of this great territory, as we shall see in the next chapter, the province of Manitoba was formed in 1870, and much later, when the population on the western plains had increased, the provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta were created in 1905.

BRITISH COLUMBIA IS PERSUADED TO JOIN

Macdonald's next step was to bring British Columbia into the Dominion. The colonies of Vancouver Island and British Columbia had been united in 1866, under the name of British Columbia. The few white settlers on the West Coast were either Hudson's Bay men and their families, or settlers who had come direct from England by way of Cape Horn, or miners and merchants who had come up from the United States when gold was discovered.

There were people who thought that Macdonald was foolish to try to bring British Columbia into the union. But he had two compelling reasons to continue his efforts. One was the dream of a Dominion from the Atlantic to the Pacific, which had inspired the Fathers of Confederation. The other was the fear that, if Canada did not bring British

Columbia into the Dominion, the United States might absorb it, just as they had the Oregon country, twenty-five years earlier.

It was not easy to persuade British Columbia. The governor was not in favour of Confederation. John A. called upon the British Government to help him. In a short time a new governor, known to favour Confederation, was sent out. Delegates from British Columbia came to Ottawa to discuss terms. The Dominion Government promised to begin within two years a railway which would connect British Columbia with eastern Canada, and to complete it within ten. In 1871 the Legislative Assembly of British Columbia voted to join the Dominion.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND COMES IN

Two years later, in 1873, Macdonald persuaded the people of Prince Edward Island to reconsider their decision and to enter Confederation. Newfoundland could not be persuaded. Later in 1893, Newfoundland made advances to the Canadian Government showing willingness to join. At that time the Canadian Government did not pay very much attention to Newfoundland's suggestion and nothing came of it. It was not until 1949, after the Second World War, that Newfoundland became the tenth province.

In accomplishing Confederation, Macdonald shares the honour with Brown, Cartier, Galt, Tupper, Tilley and McGee. In building up the new state, in consolidating a union which extends over half a continent, his name leads all the rest. That one man, in the face of powerful opposition, could within the short space of six years mould these separate provinces into one great Dominion is a triumph in nation-building that ranks among the marvels of modern history.

41. Trouble at Red River

"Little enough was our learning,
Small was our craft and skill,
But we saw the feet of the morning
Go by—and our hearts were still."

BLISS CARMAN: *Word from the Moccasin Trail*

LOUIS RIEL

In what is now the province of Manitoba, in the year 1844, a young Métis, named Louis Riel, was born. The Métis are the descendants of the French fur-traders and voyageurs who settled in the West and of the Indian women they married. Louis Riel's grandmother, Marie Anne Lagimodière, was the first white woman to make her home in the Red River Valley. His grandfather, Jean Baptiste Lagimodière, was the French voyageur who interrupted a party in Montreal to tell Lord Selkirk of the misfortunes his settlers had suffered at the hands of the Nor'westers. As the boy grew up, he showed signs of unusual ability, and he was sent to Montreal to be educated. When he came back to the Red River, he became recognized, young as he was, as a leader among the Métis.

THE MÉTIS FEAR THEY WILL LOSE THEIR HOMES

Not long after Riel returned to the West, negotiations were begun for the purchase of the Hudson's Bay Company's territories by the Dominion of Canada. These negotiations alarmed Riel and his fellow Métis. It seemed to them that they were being "sold like cattle". The Hudson's Bay Company was proposing to hand them and their lands over to Canada for a sum of money. If the settlers had been consulted during the negotiations, or if their interests had been safeguarded, it is probable that the transfer of the North West Territories to Canada

would have passed off smoothly. Unfortunately, the settlers were completely ignored. Before the North West Territories had been formally handed over to Canada, the Canadian Government sent out surveyors who ran their survey lines through the lands on which the Métis lived. When the Métis saw the surveyors from the East setting up strange instruments on their land, they became more alarmed. Some of the surveyors were rude to the settlers and teased them, telling them they were going to lose their lands. Rumours spread like wildfire, and the situation soon became serious.

In 1869 William McDougall was sent out to take over the responsibilities of governor of the settlement from Governor McTavish of the Hudson's Bay Company. Governor McTavish was very ill, dying, in fact. He was not in favour of the change. Either because he was too ill, or because he did not approve of the withdrawal of the Hudson's Bay Company, he did not do anything to help the Métis understand the situation.

THE RED RIVER INSURRECTION

When Louis Riel heard that McDougall was on his way to the settlement, he decided to take action. If the new governor was installed before the Métis had a guarantee that their rights would be respected, they might be

The attitude of the surveyors sent West by the Canadian Government helps to increase the uneasiness of the settlers





William McDougall, sent by the Government of Canada, to govern the North West Territories, is stopped at the border by the Métis

unfairly treated. A party of Métis, led by Louis Riel, ordered the surveyors to stop their work. When McDougall reached the border, a committee forbade him to enter the country until he had come to an understanding with the inhabitants. When there seemed danger that McDougall and his party might advance and occupy Fort Garry, the headquarters of the Hudson's Bay Company in the Red River Valley, Riel and his friends decided to seize the fort themselves. In doing this the Métis were merely trying to safeguard their rights as British subjects against what they considered an illegal invasion. To describe them as rebels against the Queen is perhaps wrong. Even after they seized Fort Garry, it is probable that all might have been well if McDougall had acted wisely. Unfortunately, he chose to treat the Métis as rebels. On December 1, 1869, he issued a proclamation announcing himself, before he had any right to do so, as lieutenant-governor of the North West Territories.

The Métis promptly replied to this proclamation by organizing in the Red River colony a provisional and temporary government, of which Riel was elected president. McDougall retreated to St. Paul in the United States. Everyone laughed at the amusing plight of the governor who had been compelled to take refuge in a foreign city. McDougall was promptly recalled by the Canadian Government, and his reputation for political wisdom did not survive the results of his unfortunate handling of the situation in the Red River Valley in 1869.

For nearly eight months the provisional government of Louis Riel was the only government which the Red River Valley knew. Its lot was not a bed of roses, for both at Red River itself and at Portage la Prairie there were newcomers from eastern Canada who strove to upset it. Most of the descendants of the Selkirk settlers, though not pleased that the territory had been transferred to Canada without consulting them, were unwilling to take violent action against the representatives of the Canadian Government. Riel's government never commanded general confidence though it had capable men in it. Its chief justice, James Ross, was a graduate of the University of Toronto, and had been a classics master at Upper Canada College. Riel and his colleagues succeeded in preserving law and order by the simple plan of making prisoners of the leading men opposed to them. The Canadian Government respected Riel and his associates enough to send representatives out to negotiate with them.

RIEL'S FATAL MISTAKE

Riel's government made, however, one great and fatal mistake. Among the prisoners it had taken was Thomas Scott, an Irish Protestant from Upper Canada. Scott had been active in his opposition to Riel, and had been

arrested several times and then had either been released or had escaped. He was brought to trial on the charge of insubordination and breaking parole. Then, without any of the safeguards of British justice, he was given a hurried trial, condemned to death, and shot by a firing-squad. The situation was more difficult because Scott was a Protestant and the Métis were Roman Catholics. There was very bitter feeling in Ontario and the government of Ontario offered a reward for the capture of the "murderers of Thomas Scott". Even the Dominion Government, though a number of the members of the Cabinet sympathized with Riel and the Métis, decided that an expedition of soldiers must be sent out to remove Riel and his government from control of the Red River Valley.

THE PROVINCE OF MANITOBA ESTABLISHED, 1870

Before the expedition set out, a bill was passed in the Canadian Parliament establishing the Province of Manitoba. A new governor was sent out. Manitoba was given a constitution similar to that of the other Canadian provinces. Each of the Métis received a grant of two hundred and forty acres of land in recognition of his



FORT GARRY IN 1869

descent from the original owners of the land. Moreover, the Métis had the same right to vote to elect representatives to the Legislative Assembly as the other groups in the province enjoyed. Thus they could protect their rights.

Their leader, Louis Riel, lived for some time in the United States. Twice he was elected to represent his people in the House of Commons, but he never took his place in Parliament. The people of Ontario were still very bitter about the death of Scott, and, if Riel had been found there, he would have been arrested. If it had not been for the execution of Scott, Riel would have earned a place in Canadian history beside that of William Lyon Mackenzie and Louis Joseph Papineau as a defender of the rights of the people. He returned to Canada later, at the request of the Métis of Saskatchewan, to lead a rising against the government. For his part in it, he paid the penalty that unsuccessful rebels pay whether their cause be just or unjust—the penalty of death.

42. The Riders of the Plains

"In the little crimson manual it's written plain and clear
That those who would wear the scarlet coat shall say good-bye to fear."

ROBERT W. SERVICE: *Clancy of the Mounted*

While the Hudson's Bay Company controlled the great area drained by the rivers flowing into Hudson Bay, it made the laws and was responsible for maintaining order there. But when the Dominion bought this territory and organized part of it into the Province of Manitoba, a huge area in the North West was left with no one responsible for preserving law and order. Few white people lived on the plains west of Manitoba. Except for a few white

traders, the prairie was inhabited mostly by wandering tribes of Indians.

Reports of horse-stealing, of fighting between Indian tribes, of American traders giving whisky for furs began to reach Ottawa. One American trader had built a fort called Fort Whoop-Up to "whoop-up" the fur trade. So many American traders were coming into the country that there was danger that Canada might lose control of the prairies. That would mean losing British Columbia, too. The Dominion Government had promised British Columbia when that province entered Confederation in 1871 that a railway would be built across the prairies to connect it with the other provinces. A railway could never be supported unless there were settlers to use it. Settlers would not come if they could not be sure that there was some authority to maintain law and order.

THE NORTH WEST MOUNTED POLICE FORCE ESTABLISHED

Sir John A. Macdonald gave the matter long and careful thought. At last, in 1873, he decided to entrust the preservation of law and order in the North West Territories to a new force to be known as the North West Mounted Police. This force was to number only three hundred men, a tiny body to patrol such an enormous territory. "There will be," said Sir John, "as little gold lace, and fuss and feathers, as possible." Almost the only military feature of the Police was its uniform, which, with its scarlet tunic, was intended to impress the Indians, many of whom had a kindly memory of the red-coated British regulars who had formerly been on duty at some of the forts in the prairie country. The uniform of the Police was intended to remind them that the Police were, in fact, the "Soldiers of the Queen".



The North West Mounted Police set out on their march west

In the early summer of 1874 the three hundred men chosen to make up this force gathered in southern Manitoba. There were six troops of fifty men each. Half of them had spent the winter at Fort Garry drilling in preparation for their duties. The others came from the East to join them, travelling by American railways as far as they could, for there were no railways in western Canada at that time.

Even before they started on their march west they had their difficulties. The horses stampeded during a severe electrical storm.

"A thunder-bolt fell in the midst of the horses," wrote young Sam Steele. "Terrified, they broke their fastenings and made for the side of the corral. The six men on guard were trampled under foot as they tried to stop them. The maddened beasts overturned the huge wagons, dashed through a row of tents, scattered everything, and made for the gate of the large field where we were encamped. In their mad effort to pass they climbed over one another to the height of many feet. I had full view of the stampede,

being not more than fifty yards from the horses as they rushed at the gate and attempted to pass it, scrambling and rolling over one another in a huge mass. One of the inspectors jumped on a horse and chased after the wild animals for over fifty miles across the border. In twenty-four hours' riding he rounded them up and brought them back."

In July, the North West Mounted Police began their march into the West. First came Troop A on dark bay horses, Troop B on brown, Troop C on chestnut, Troop D on grey, Troop E on black, and Troop F on light bay. Then followed a string of ox-carts, prairie schooners, wagons, mowing-machines and other agricultural implements, and cattle for food, for the force had to take with it everything it needed, including meat "on the hoof". The column was a mile and a half long. The plan was to march through the country west to the Rockies, then north to Edmonton, then east to Swan River, which was to be their headquarters. But the expedition was more difficult than they had expected. They did not always find pasture for their horses. Men and animals became ill as a result of drinking impure water. The force had to change its plans. One troop went to Edmonton, two went to Swan River. The other three pushed on to establish a post on the Old Man River, where the city of Macleod now stands. On their way they passed Fort Whoop-Up, which the whisky traders had deserted before the police reached it.

THE N.W.M.P. PUT A STOP TO THE WHISKY TRADE

The first job was to put a stop to the selling of whisky to the Indians. American traders had been coming up from the South and trading liquor for furs. In the early years of their trading with the Indians the Hudson's Bay Company and the North West Company had either traded

rum and whisky for furs or had treated the Indians to liquor after the trading was over. Many of the Indians craved liquor and would barter anything they had for it. Gradually the Hudson's Bay Company put a stop to the practice of giving liquor to the Indians because it had such a bad effect upon them, but the American traders were usually independent, each man for himself, and each eager to make a quick profit no matter how harmful the methods he used. At Fort Whoop-Up the traders could get a buffalo robe for two cups of whisky and a good horse for three gallons. A group of drunken Indians could be very dangerous. Settlers did not dare to take up land for fear of trouble with the Indians. Buffalo hunters from Manitoba sometimes hesitated to go out on the western plains except in large well-armed parties for fear of difficulties with the Indians. Sometimes Indians who had been unfairly treated by one white man would take revenge on the next white traders they happened to meet.

The N.W.M.P. soon put the fear of the law into the "whisky jacks" as the traders had been called. Before long Colonel Macleod wrote, "I am happy to be able to report the complete stoppage of the whisky trade throughout this whole section of the country, and that the drunken riots which in former years were almost a daily occurrence, are now entirely at an end: in fact, a more peaceable community than this, with a very large number of Indians camped along the river, could not be found anywhere."

THE INDIANS LEARN TO RESPECT THE MOUNTIES

At the same time, the police gained the confidence and respect of the Indians. Chief Crowfoot, the wise and powerful leader of the Blackfoot Indians, had a high regard for Colonel Macleod, to whom the Indians gave the name "Bull's Head".

"Three years ago, when the police first came into the country," declared Crowfoot, "I met and shook hands with Bull's Head. Since that time he has made me many promises. He kept them all—not one has been broken . . . If the police had not come to this country, where would we all be now? Bad men and whisky were killing us so fast that very few of us would be left to-day. The Mounted Police have protected us as the feathers of the bird protect it from the frosts of winter."

It was not, of course, immediately that the Police won the respect of all the Indians. Some of them had to be taught that the Mounties could not be defied. When the Canadian Pacific Railway was being built, Chief Pie-a-Pot of the Crees tried to make trouble. He ordered his braves to gallop around the workmen and fire shots over their heads. He set up camp right in the way of the railway line and refused to move. The Mounted Police were called in. A corporal and a constable rode over to Pie-a-Pot's camp and gave him exactly fifteen minutes to move away. When the Indians did not obey, the corporal got off his horse, and calmly knocked down the key-pole of every tipi in the camp. He then said to Pie-a-Pot, "Now get out." Pie-a-Pot decided to accept his advice.

Over two hundred Crees wandered down into the United States. When the American authorities decided to send them back, a regiment of U.S. cavalry escorted them to the border where they were met by three Mounties.

This incident shows how the Indians came to respect the authority of the N.W.M.P.



"Where is your escort for these Indians?" demanded the American commanding officer.

"We're here," answered the corporal.

"Yes, yes," said the American officer. "But where is your regiment?"

"I guess it's all right," was the reply. "The other fellow is looking after the breakfast things."

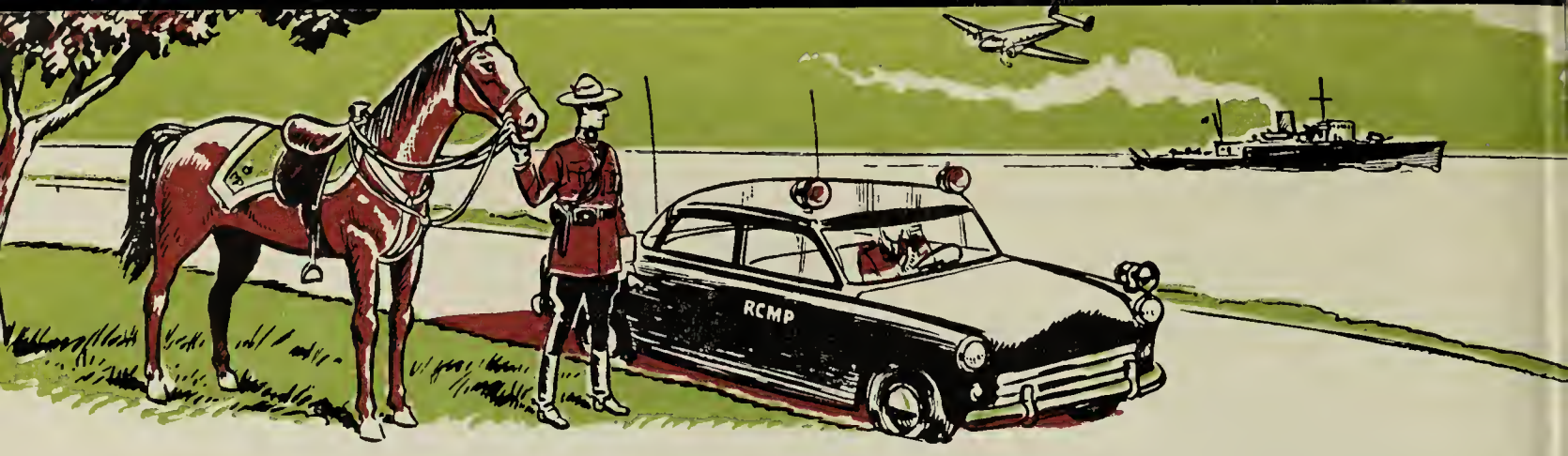
And the three men from the North West Mounted Police took over the tribe of Crees without any difficulty.

As time went on, and white settlers came into the western country, the Police had to deal with problems of a different character. There came into the country a number of American desperadoes. "There ain't no Johnny Canuck can arrest me," vowed one of these gentry, who had amused himself by taking "pot shots" at the citizens of the town of Weyburn, near the American border. He found, however, that he was mistaken. A constable of the Police rode into Weyburn, and took the boastful ruffian's revolver away from him before he could use it.

The motto of the Mounties is "*Maintiens le droit*", which means "Uphold the right". They established law and order in the unsettled West so fearlessly and so successfully that they became famous the world over. Once they were on the track of a criminal, they did not give up until they had him under lock and key. "The Mounties always get their man" became a tradition.

THE R.C.M.P. TO-DAY

In 1920 the name of the North West Mounted Police was changed to Royal Canadian Mounted Police, and the duties of the force were greatly extended. It is still the only police force in the Far North, and it acts as Provincial Police in the Prairie Provinces and in the Maritimes. It protects government buildings and dockyards, and en-



Today the R.C.M.P. protects Canadians and Canada in many ways

forces the laws against smuggling by land, sea, or air. It investigates people who are suspected of disloyalty to Canada. To-day the force has over three thousand men. There are training schools in Regina and in Rockcliffe, near Ottawa, where new members are carefully trained for their duties, with special instruction in wrestling, boxing, and ju-jitsu.

43. Bands of Steel

"They snared a savage continent in steel."
CHARLES G. D. ROBERTS: *These Three Score Years*

Sir John A. Macdonald was a man of his word. He had promised British Columbia a railway connecting the Pacific coast with eastern Canada. A company was formed by Sir Hugh Allan, and plans were drawn up to build the railway when Macdonald and his Cabinet were driven out of office.

THE PACIFIC SCANDAL

One day a member of Parliament stated that Sir Hugh Allan had, at the request of some of the Cabinet ministers, donated a large sum of money to the Conservative party for election expenses. People considered that this was a bribe accepted by the members of the government, and in the next election, Macdonald's party was defeated.

THE NEW PRIME MINISTER MOVES SLOWLY

The Liberal party, led by Alexander Mackenzie, came into power in 1874. The Liberals had opposed the railway plan and had said that it would never make enough money "to pay for its axle grease". Mackenzie tried to persuade British Columbia to settle for a good wagon road and a telegraph line to connect them with eastern Canada, but British Columbia would not agree. During the years Mackenzie was in power, from 1874 to 1878, the government proceeded slowly with the building of short lines to connect waterways.

Mackenzie was an honest man, and he brought about some important reforms. He introduced voting by ballot instead of the old system of open voting. Under the old system voters could be frightened into voting as other people wished. Formerly, too, the elections had lasted for several days. Mackenzie passed a law saying that the election must be completed in one day. But Mackenzie had very bad luck. It was not his fault that during his term of office there was a world-wide depression, and that Canada had three of the worst crops in her whole history. Whenever there is a depression in any country, people begin to blame the government, or, at least, to demand that the government should do something about it.

MACDONALD RETURNS TO POWER

At this time, there was a group of men who were beginning to advocate a policy which they called "Canada First". These men did not all belong to either the Liberal or the Conservative party. Their purpose was to create a strong national spirit, a pride in Canada, and faith in its future. Their ideas caused a great deal of discussion about Canada's future and what the policy of the government should be.

Sir John A. Macdonald saw there was considerable support for the policy of putting a duty on manufactured goods coming into Canada. When the election of 1878 came, Sir John A. and his associates tried to convince the people that duties on manufactured goods coming into Canada would encourage the building of factories and bring prosperity once more. The people were desperate. Macdonald had always been popular. The electors forgot about the Pacific Scandal and elected Macdonald and his party to power.

THE CANADIAN PACIFIC RAILWAY BUILT IN SPITE OF TREMENDOUS DIFFICULTIES

By this time the people of British Columbia were angry that so little had been done about the promised railway. Some began to talk about withdrawing from Confederation. Macdonald lost no time having the work begun. In his opinion the future welfare of Canada depended upon the construction of a railway from coast to coast. A group of men, including George Stephen and Donald Smith, organized the Canadian Pacific Railway Company and

To build the railway through the Rocky Mountains is a great engineering feat



undertook to complete the line in ten years. In return the government promised them $25,000,000 and 25,000,000 acres of land, and also turned over to them the six hundred and forty miles of railway already completed.

There were, of course, people who thought the government was paying far too much. It was found, however, that it was not nearly enough. The railway cost so much the directors had to come to the government again and again for more money. Donald Smith and his associates pledged their own fortunes to complete the work. If the railway had failed they would have lost all they had.

At one stage it was touch-and-go whether the railway would be completed. There was no money in the treasury. The directors of the company had raised all they could. The general manager, William Van Horne, wired the president: "Have no means paying wages, pay car can't go out, and unless we get further relief we must stop. Please inform Premier and Finance Minister. Do not be surprised, or blame me, if an immediate and most serious catastrophe happens."

All that was needed to tide them over the crisis was a final loan of $5,000,000. But the government had already asked Parliament to advance so much money for the railway that Macdonald could hardly bring himself to ask for more. Fortunately the Minister of Railways convinced him that the failure of the Canadian Pacific would mean the ruin of Canada, the ruin of the Conservative party, and the end of Macdonald's political career.

Macdonald persuaded Parliament to vote this final loan and the road was completed. If it had not been for the faith these men had in the future of Canada, it is likely that the Canadian Pacific Railway would have been the cause of the most disastrous financial crisis in Canadian history.



THE LONGEST RAILWAY IN THE WORLD—1885

As an engineering feat, the building of the Canadian Pacific was a marvellous accomplishment. Almost insuperable obstacles had to be overcome. North of Lake Superior the road had to be run through a wild and barren country where a suitable road-bed could be made only by blasting through vast masses of rock and by filling in almost bottomless swamps. In one muskeg area to-day seven layers of rails are buried, one below the other. The stretch along the shore of the lake was very difficult. The rocks were the toughest known to engineers. In the Rocky Mountains the line had to be built through the Kicking Horse Pass, round steep precipices, and through long tunnels. Yet the work was done faster than anyone had dared to hope.

In November, 1885, the last spike was driven home by Donald Smith at Craigellachie, a little village in British Columbia. A year or so earlier the directors of an American railway had celebrated the completion of their enterprise by an excursion that cost the company over $300,000. Their last spike was of gold, and driven in by the highest



official before a crowd of stockholders. William Van Horne announced that, on the Canadian Pacific, "the last spike will be just as good an iron spike as any other on the road".

Six months later the first passenger train went through from Montreal to Vancouver. The longest railway in the world was in operation, stretching from coast to coast across Canada.

The people who accused Macdonald of "pouring money down the gorges of British Columbia" were mistaken. From the day trains began to run from coast to coast the C.P.R. has been a great success. It soon made enough profit to repay the government loans. There can be no doubt that the transcontinental railway was a very important factor in building the new Dominion. It linked the East and the West, and made the rapid development of the western plains possible. Moreover, it showed the world what Canadian enterprise and determination could accomplish.

44. Rebellion on the Saskatchewan

"Wide are the plains to the north and the westward:
Drear are the skies to the west and the north—
Little they cared, as they snatched up their rifles,
And shoulder to shoulder marched gallantly forth."
S. LIVINGSTON: *The Volunteers of '85*

The railway gangs were still laying the rails of the Canadian Pacific when the new line of steel was called upon to carry soldiers to the western prairies.

THE MÉTIS ON THE SASKATCHEWAN FEAR THEY WILL LOSE THEIR HOMES

In the spring of 1885 rebellion broke loose in the Saskatchewan country. The Métis were restless again. The buffalo and other fur-bearing animals on which they had depended for a living were disappearing. The Métis were afraid that the railway and the settlers who would follow were going to end the way of life they had known.

Surveyors were already laying out the prairies in square townships and sections, ignoring the boundaries of the river lots which the Métis had taken up along the Saskatchewan River. The Métis begged for titles to their lands. When they sent a deputation to Ottawa to plead their cause, the Canadian Government gave them only fair words and empty promises, and did nothing. The Métis were afraid that they would lose their homes.

THEY SEND FOR LOUIS RIEL

Looking for a leader who could secure justice for them, the Métis sent for Louis Riel to come back from Montana, where he was teaching school.

Louis Riel was not the best leader they could have chosen. Since he had headed the Red River insurrection

in Manitoba, he had spent some time in a mental hospital. Undoubtedly he had become a person of unbalanced mind. He was, however, a man of education and he had the interests of his own people at heart. When he returned to Canada, he first tried to obtain fair treatment by lawful means. He drew up a Bill of Rights, stating the grievances of the Métis. Most of the requests in Riel's Bill of Rights were just and reasonable. Unfortunately the government at Ottawa did not pay any attention to this petition. Most of the members of the government were so very busy with affairs nearer to Ottawa that they did not take time to consider what was happening out in the West. Perhaps they believed that Riel would not go to extremes. If so, they were mistaken.

THE MÉTIS SET UP A PROVISIONAL GOVERNMENT

In March, 1885, the storm burst. The Métis were bitterly disappointed and very angry when they realized that their petition had been ignored. They formed a

Gabriel Dumont and his Métis attack a wagon train



provisional government with headquarters at Batoche. Riel was chosen president of this government, and Gabriel Dumont, a famous buffalo hunter, was made commander of their fighting forces. Riel sent runners to the Indian tribes, calling upon them to join the Métis to drive the white men out of the West. This was rebellion.

On March 26th, a detachment of Mounted Police from Fort Carlton were on their way to Duck Lake to get supplies of ammunition. Suddenly they were attacked by Dumont's men. Twelve of the Mounties were killed and thirty-five wounded. The rest gave up Fort Carlton and went to Prince Albert. The rebels had won the first round.

INDIANS ON THE WAR-PATH

The defeat of the white men was soon known to the Indians. A band of Crees had made camp near the little settlement of Frog Lake. Their chief, Big Bear, did not want to make war but in his tribe there was a reckless young brave, named Wandering Spirit, who longed to drive all white men off the plains. Led by Wandering Spirit, the Crees attacked Frog Lake where they killed nine men and took the rest of the settlers captive.

When the news of Duck Lake and Frog Lake flashed over the newly erected telegraph wire to Ottawa, the whole country woke to the seriousness of the situation. The rising of the Métis was alarming enough, but the news that Indians were on the war-path in the West filled the whole country with fear. Everyone knew that a small handful of North West Mounted Police could not cope with the Indian tribes if they were once aroused to war. So far, the people of Canada had had, in contrast with the Americans, almost no trouble with the Indians but Canadians knew about the horrors of Indian warfare, the scalping, the massacres, the torturing of captives.



Volunteers march to fight against the rebels of 1885

VOLUNTEERS CALLED FOR

The government roused itself to action at once. The call went out for volunteers. Three thousand enlisted in Ontario and Quebec. Two thousand more joined up in the West.

The problem was to get the soldiers from the East to the battle-ground quickly. There were still many gaps in the Canadian Pacific Railway—a hundred and twenty miles in all. Fortunately William Van Horne, general manager of the C.P.R., was an energetic and resourceful man who had had experience in moving troops during the American Civil War. He told the government that he could get men to Qu'Appelle in ten days. Orders went out to his workmen. Some of the gaps were bridged by temporary rails laid on the snow and ice. In one stretch the volunteers marched across the ice to save a long detour. At other places they were taken in contractors' sleighs from one camp to the next. Four days after they left Kingston the first troops landed in Winnipeg.

General Middleton was put in charge of the expedition. Within ten days his main force was on its way from Qu'Appelle towards Riel's headquarters at Batoche. Troops under Colonel Otter left the train at Swift Current and marched towards Battleford, and troops under General Strange set out from Calgary towards Edmonton. The Mounted Police held Battleford and Prince Albert where the white settlers had gathered to escape the horrors of Indian warfare.

The total number of Métis and Indians under Gabriel Dumont was probably never more than a thousand, but the volunteers found them formidable foes. The rebels were deadly shots and expert horsemen and they had the advantage of being in their own country. Colonel Otter, on his way to Battleford, was driven back by the Crees at Cut Knife Creek. General Middleton's advance was checked by Dumont at Fish Creek. However, when General Middleton's men succeeded in taking Batoche on May 12th, less than seven weeks after the first shot had been fired at Duck Lake, the rebellion was over. The rebels fled. Dumont escaped to the United States. Riel was taken by the Mounted Police. Later in the summer Big Bear surrendered.

When the news came over the telegraph that the rebellion had been put down, the whole of Canada breathed a sigh of relief. If the rebellion had spread to more of the Indian tribes, the result might have been more disastrous. Fortunately, the Indians in the North West had been well treated by the Mounted Police and by the Hudson's Bay Company. Canada now reaped the reward of this fair treatment, for the wiser chiefs had held their bands back from war.

Rebellion is treason. The punishment for treason is death. The people of Canada demanded that the ringleaders should be punished. Riel and eight other leaders, including Wandering Spirit, were condemned to death. Others were sentenced to imprisonment. Big Bear was among those sent to prison, but in a short time he was set free, because his friends showed that he had tried to keep his tribe from fighting.

When the people of Quebec heard that Riel was sentenced to death, they demanded that he should be spared. They claimed that he was insane and should not be held accountable for his acts. The people in Ontario insisted that Riel should be put to death. Sir John A. Macdonald was in a difficult position. If he had Riel executed, he would offend his supporters in Quebec. If he did not, he would offend the electors in Ontario. Three times the government gave Riel a reprieve. A commission of three doctors was sent out to examine him to find out whether he was sane or not. In the end the government decided that the law must take its course and Riel was put to death with the others.

The rebellion on the Saskatchewan was the tragic result of the indifference and carelessness of the government. Now, at last, officials were sent out to look after the granting of title deeds. Measures were taken to keep the Indians contented. But it was a long time before the bitterness over the execution of Riel died down. A happier result of the rebellion was that many of the volunteers remained in the West and took up land, while others who went back to their homes gave glowing accounts of the rich fertile land to be found in Manitoba and on the banks of the Saskatchewan.

To-day Indians, Métis, and white men live at peace side by side on the western plains. This was the last time Indians went on the war-path in Canada.

45. The Bread-Basket of the Empire

"They say there's bread and work for all,
The sun shines always here."
COUNTESS OF DUFFERIN: *Lament of the Irish Emigrant*

As early as 1816 Lord Selkirk had predicted that the western plains might become "the granary of the British Empire" and "might afford subsistence to more than thirty millions of British subjects". For a long time, however, the progress of the West was slow. The colony at Red River continued to exist but it did not grow. The officials of the Hudson's Bay Company even tried to persuade the outside world that the prairie land was not good for farming. In 1857, Sir George Simpson, governor of the Hudson's Bay Company, declared, "No part of the territories of the Company is well adapted for settlement . . . The crops are uncertain, and even in the Saskatchewan valley the Company's men have not been able to grow wheat." Naturally the Company did not want settlers to come. Settlers ruin the fur trade.

The homes of the first settlers on the prairies were built of sod



SETTLERS FOLLOW THE RAILWAY

Even after Canada took over the Hudson's Bay Company's territories in 1869, the fertile stretches of the prairies waited a long time for settlers. Then came the building of the railway. Settlers followed the railway. Along the line of steel, a boom began. People from eastern Canada came out to take up the free land. A harness-maker who set up a shop in Calgary recorded in his diary as follows:

1883
May 18—I put my name in the window, and it is the first sign in Calgary . . .
July 31—Gave subscription and ad. to the first paper in the place . . .
Aug. 11—The train crossed the Bow (river) . . .
Aug. 16—Temporary station arrived . . .
Aug. 20—Newspaper tent put up near the railroad . . .
Aug. 30—First number of the Calgary Herald issued . . .
Sept. 28—Bannerman, the postmaster, received his first mail by train . . .
1884
Jan. 7—Attended first public meeting in Calgary at Methodist Church . . .
May 27—Made out bill for meeting Friday night to decide upon a representative in the North-West Council . . .
Aug. 22—Attended first meeting at Calgary Agricultural Society . . .
Nov. 10—News of incorporation (of Calgary as a town) came . . .

These entries give us a picture of the excitement of the growth of these settlements. Within a year and a half Calgary was an organized town.

THE BOOM BREAKS

Then came the Saskatchewan Rebellion in 1885, with its dangers of an Indian uprising. The boom collapsed.

Fear of Indians on the war-path kept people from coming west. Accounts of fierce blizzards and the long cold winters helped to discourage settlement. In 1890 a speaker in the House of Commons described the west as "empty still". True, by that time there were 152,000 people in Manitoba, and Winnipeg had grown into a city of 25,000, but in the prairie country farther west settlements were few and very small, except for Calgary, which boasted a population of 4,000.

NEW BLOOD AT OTTAWA

This was the situation when the Liberals under Wilfrid Laurier came into power in 1896. Sir John A. Macdonald had died in 1891. With the exception of the five years following the Pacific Scandal, he had been Prime Minister since Confederation. But his party had been in power a long time. His successors were not able to appeal to the people as Macdonald had done, and in the election of 1896, the Liberals won by an overwhelming majority. The new Prime Minister, Wilfrid Laurier, was a scholarly lawyer of French descent from the province of Quebec. He was an eloquent speaker and a skilful party leader. During his term of office (from 1896 till 1911), Canada, and especially western Canada, made great progress.

SETTLERS POUR IN

One of the first jobs Laurier's government undertook was to bring settlers to fill up the West. Six thousand Mennonites had already settled along the Red River in Manitoba, and a large group of Icelanders had found new homes at Gimli on Lake Winnipeg where they could work at both fishing and farming. The Mennonites were the first to farm successfully on the open treeless prairie. The

Icelanders began the fishing industry on Lake Winnipeg. These newcomers were good settlers. They proved that people, knowing no English, unacquainted with Canadian laws and customs, could prosper in the new land, if they were willing and able to work.

By 1896 there was no cheap land left in eastern Canada. So many immigrants had poured into the American west that most of the good land there had been taken up. This was Canada's opportunity. Clifford Sifton, Minister of the Interior in Laurier's Cabinet, began to advertise the fertile farm lands of the Canadian West, first in Great Britain and in the United States, and then throughout the length and breadth of Europe. The Canadian Pacific Railway joined the advertising campaign, eager to sell the millions of acres it had received when it undertook to build the railway. The directors of the C.P.R. knew, too, that more settlers would mean more business for the railway. Immigration agents were sent far and wide to encourage people to come to Canada, to tell them what they would need, and what life would be like in the new land. These agents painted glowing pictures of the opportunities that awaited pioneers on the prairies.

The prospects were tempting. For a $10 fee a man could take up a homestead. Each homesteader was granted 160 acres of land, on condition that he build a house on it, live on it six months of the year, break thirty acres a year, and put twenty acres under crop. If he fulfilled these conditions, the land was his at the end of three years.

Newcomers who had enough money could buy C.P.R. land close to the railway line for comparatively small sums. The directors of the company realized that it would be more profitable to encourage settlement which would

increase the railway's revenues than it would be to hold the land for a high price.

Settlers poured in. They came from eastern Canada, from Great Britain, and from the United States. They came from Russia, Poland, and the Ukraine, from Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Holland, from Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Iceland. There was land for all who wanted it, and for people from Europe that meant a great deal. Few of them had been able to own land in the countries from which they came. For those who did not want to farm, there was work to be found, since the towns and cities of the West were growing fast, and jobs were plentiful.

So many immigrants came to make new homes in Canada that the population increased from five million to eight million in fifteen years.

The people who came from eastern Canada or from the United States soon made themselves at home. Those from the British Isles learned in a few years how to get along on their prairie farms. But for the people from Europe it was much more difficult. They had had to give up their citizenship in their own country and become citizens in a strange land, where the language, laws, and customs were different from those they had known. In many places groups of settlers of one nationality settled in a district. It was a comfort to them in their first days in this country to be with people who spoke their language and understood their background, but they would have become Canadian more quickly if they had associated with English-speaking Canadians from the first.

TWO NEW PROVINCES

New towns sprang up like mushrooms. So quickly did the West fill up that it was not long before the settlers

were demanding the right to have a Legislative Assembly to pass laws and look after the affairs of the people who lived there. In 1905, two new provinces, Alberta and Saskatchewan, were carved out of the North West Territories. Regina, which had been the headquarters for the administration of the North West Territories, became the capital of Saskatchewan. Edmonton became the capital of Alberta.

MORE RAILWAYS TO HANDLE THE WESTERN WHEAT

In a very short time the wheat harvest was so great that the railways could not handle it. The C.P.R. built branch lines but it could not keep up with the flood of golden grain. Prices of wheat were high in Europe. The government undertook to transport the grain to market. It made an agreement with the Grand Trunk Railway to extend its line to the Pacific, and it gave generous grants of money to help William Mackenzie and Donald Mann build the Canadian Northern. These new railways, when first built, were a great boon to the West. Wheat moved quickly to the seaports; farm machinery, stoves, household furniture, and clothing from the factories of the East filled the freight trains on their return trip to the prairies. The wheat of western Canada brought wealth to the whole country.

No country with a population as small as that of Canada has ever had to face so difficult a problem of transportation. There seemed to be no limit to this mushroom growth of the West. Every city expected to become a second Chicago. Every village expected to become a large city. The railways were rushed through to handle the enormous passenger and freight traffic that was developing. Few realized that the West would not continue to double and redouble its population. Before the Grand



This is a familiar scene in the Prairie Provinces. Canada ranks fourth in the wheat-producing countries of the world

Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern had tracks laid from coast to coast, the flood of incoming settlers had shrunk to a small stream. Once the good land was taken up and the newcomers had built their homes and bought their farm equipment, it became clear that Canada could not afford three competing transcontinental railways. To-day we realize that some other solution should have been sought to handle the first great rush of settlement.

THE WEST GROWS UP

By 1911, when Laurier's government was defeated by the Conservatives, the West was already passing out of the pioneer stage. The Peace River district, once thought too far north to be good farm land, was thriving. Scientific discoveries in agriculture, such as the production of early ripening Marquis wheat by William Saunders, and the development of wheat that will resist rust, have con-

tributed very greatly to the prosperity of the prairie provinces.

Coal was discovered at Souris and at Lethbridge. Sawmills and flour-mills were built. Grain elevators dotted the prairie, casting their long shadows across the tracks on which the trains came to carry the grain away to a hungry world. Towns and cities were growing so fast that people who went away for a few months hardly knew their own towns when they returned.

It is difficult to realize when one visits Edmonton or Saskatoon to-day that there are people still living who remember when only a few shacks and tents marked the sites of these now large and prosperous cities.

46. Newfoundland, the Tenth Province, Guardian of the Gate

"But all the shocks of all the years,
The winds and waves, the flouts and jeers,
Cannot cast down this gallant isle—
You mend your nets again and smile."

A. P. Herbert in the *Sunday Graphic*

On April 1, 1949, Newfoundland became the tenth province of Canada. Now, at last, Canada truly stretched "from sea to sea".

THE GRAND BANKS

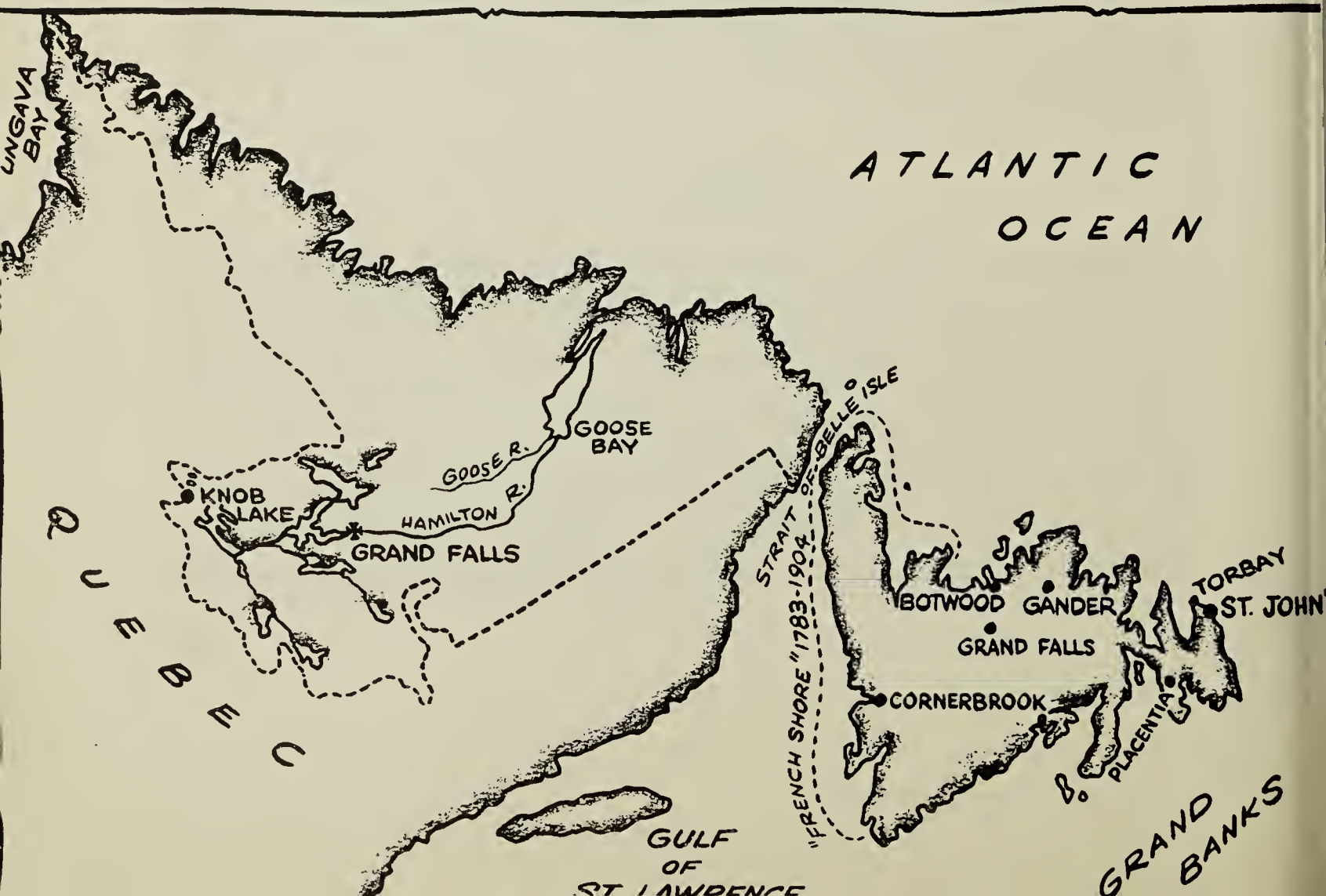
Extending about three hundred nautical miles from land, and stretching south and east of Newfoundland, there is a great under-water shelf, which is known as the Grand Banks. Conditions there are good for fish. The water is shallow, averaging about fifty fathoms (three hundred feet) in depth. The cold Arctic current flows across it. There is an abundance of plankton, on which

the fish feed. For over three hundred and fifty years, fishermen have been taking great hauls of cod, flounder, rosefish, and haddock from the Grand Banks.

FISHING FLEETS FROM MANY LANDS

The first report of this good fishing-ground was taken to England by John and Sebastian Cabot when they returned from their first visit to America in 1497. They told about lowering baskets into the sea and pulling them back filled with fish. The news soon spread wherever fishermen gathered. In less than five years, fishermen from England and from Portugal were on their way to the Grand Banks. French and Spanish fishing-boats were not far behind. Every spring scores of little sailing-ships set out from the ports of Europe to cross the stormy Atlantic, and in the autumn they returned home laden with fish. To-day names on the map of Newfoundland such as English Harbour, Frenchman's Cove, Portugal Cove, Port aux Basques, and Harbour Breton remind us of the bold sailors of many nations who cast their nets on the Grand Banks over four centuries ago.

Newfoundland became our tenth province on April 1, 1949





In the sixteenth century, English, French and Spanish ships came to fish off the coasts of Newfoundland

SETTLERS BRAVE MANY HARDSHIPS

It was many years after the discovery of Newfoundland before any attempt was made to establish settlements on the island. The fish were plentiful, the price was good, and the fishermen thought only of getting their boats filled and their fish to market as quickly as possible.

At first, the fishermen cleaned the cod, and salted it on board their boats. This is known as "green" fishing. Later, the fishermen began to dry their fish on the land before packing it into their boats. Dry fishing had many advantages. Fewer fish spoiled before they reached the market; less salt was needed; ships could carry more fish. For dry fishing the fishermen needed buildings and wharves, but, even so, it was more profitable than "green" fishing. In time the owners began to leave a few men to look after their wharves and buildings during the winter season. But these men cannot be considered settlers, for they did not plan to spend the rest of their lives in Newfoundland.

As we have seen in Chapter 5, Sir Humphrey Gilbert's attempt to found a colony in 1583 was a failure. The first permanent settlement took place in 1610 when John Guy of Bristol brought 41 people to found a colony at Cupids.

Sir George Calvert, who later became Lord Baltimore, established a colony at Ferryland, but his wife found the climate too severe and pioneer conditions too difficult. He left Newfoundland and secured a grant of land farther south, which later became the colony of Maryland.

These colonies did not prosper. The fish merchants of the West Country of England, who controlled the fishing industry, were just as unfriendly to settlers in Newfoundland as the fur-traders were to settlers in western Canada. And the fishing merchants were more successful in hindering settlement than the fur-traders ever were. Harsh laws were passed forbidding people to settle on the island. Ship captains were required to take back to England every man they took out to the fishing-grounds. Fines were imposed on those who came home without their full quota of men. Settlers were not allowed to build homes, to clear land, or to plant gardens. They were forbidden to live within six miles of the coast. In fact, at one time, a warship was sent out from England to move all the settlers to other English colonies or back to England. When the captain, Sir John Berry, saw that the Newfoundlanders were prepared to fight for the right to stay on the island, he returned to England and told the King that these brave people should be allowed to remain where they were.

It is surprising that the settlements survived the opposition of the fishing merchants and the harsh laws which the British Government was persuaded to pass. Some of the settlers sought safety in remote coves. They built houses where they would be hidden as much as possible. Some bold men defied the laws and built homes right in the harbour of St. John's. If they were lucky, the authorities took no notice of them. But they never knew when they might be driven out and their poor shacks burned to the ground. Even if they escaped that fate,

there was always danger of attacks by pirates of other nations.

In spite of the regulations the colony grew. Fishing vessels often picked up men for their crew in Ireland, and these they did not have to account for when the ships returned to England. Many of the Irish fishermen remained in the colony. The fishing merchants eventually began to realize that if they could employ men who lived on the island to work for them during the fishing season it would save the expense of bringing men out from England. While France and Britain were at war, the fishermen preferred to settle in Newfoundland and avoid the risk of being captured by the enemy. By 1804 the population of Newfoundland was estimated at 20,000.

Governor Gambier in 1802 granted pasture lands in spite of the laws. Governor Duckworth, a few years later, pointed out that the laws against settlement could not be enforced and that there would not be enough food unless people were allowed to cultivate the land. Unfortunately, the laws which forbade clearing the land or building houses drove men who might have been good citizens to become law-breakers. Some settlers built houses while the governor was away during the winter, hoping that he would not notice them when he returned. Others claimed that a previous governor had given them permission to build, and this trick sometimes worked.

The first settlers in Newfoundland are forced to build their homes in secrecy because of the laws in force at that time



In the years following Cabot's report of the rich fisheries on the Grand Banks, ships of several nations came every year. After the defeat of the Spanish Armada, Spanish fishermen no longer came. As Portugal declined in power, fewer Portuguese came. Almost all the fishing-boats came from England or France.

As we have seen in Chapter 17, when Charles II gave the French permission to land and dry their fish along the south shore from Cape Race to Cape Ray, the French established themselves at Placentia. Before long French and English fishermen were raiding each other's headquarters. On the whole, the French were more successful in their attacks than the English were when they tried to strike back. However, when a treaty was made in 1713, the French had to recognize that Newfoundland belonged to Britain. They were forced to give up Placentia and their rights on the south shore, but they obtained permission to land to dry their fish on the north and west shores. Before long the French began to claim that they had the right to cut wood along those shores and that the Newfoundlanders had no right to fish in those areas. The British authorities seemed more concerned about keeping on good terms with the French than about protecting the rights of the people of their own colony.

When the French and British fought as allies in the Crimean War (1854-1857), more trouble was in store for Newfoundland. Britain made an agreement with France that would have given the French fishermen even more privileges at the expense of the Newfoundlanders. When the terms of this agreement became known, there was great indignation in the colony. The British flag was pulled down to half-mast. Some people even raised the



The Fishing Admiral dispenses rough justice on the shores of Newfoundland

American flag as an indication that they would prefer to throw their lot in with the United States. For once Liberals and Conservatives, merchants and fishermen, clergy and laymen of all denominations were in agreement. Delegates were sent to Britain to protest against this injustice, and to Canada to ask for support in their protest.

The British Government had not expected so violent an outburst. The agreement with France was cancelled and the Newfoundlanders were assured that in the future none of the rights enjoyed by the colony would be changed without its consent. This declaration is called Newfoundland's Magna Carta. Finally, in 1904, the French gave up all claims in Newfoundland.

GOVERNMENT

When the first settlements were established, the leaders tried to govern justly. But, most of the time, what government there was rested in the hands of the Fishing Admirals. And that was a very poor system. According to the law the captain of the first ship to reach harbour was the

Admiral for that season. No matter how harsh or ignorant he might be (and some of them could not even read or write), the first captain to reach shore became ruler for the season. He had the right to allot space on the beach to the ships as they came in. He was judge in all disputes, with power to punish his foes and reward his friends.

In spite of the fact that grants of land were made to such men as Guy and Calvert, the British Government did not favour settlement in Newfoundland any more than the fishing merchants did. England had not taken long to realize the importance of the Grand Banks. Sir Francis Bacon declared that the fisheries "contained richer values than the mines of Mexico and Peru". But Newfoundland was important to England not only for the profitable cargoes of fish the ships brought home every year. The Newfoundland fishing fleet was a training school for sailors. Newfoundland has been called "a nursery for seamen". After men spent a few years with the fishing fleet they were skilled sailors and of great value to the Navy in time of war. At one time the law required that one-fifth of every crew was to be made up of "green" men, in order that more sailors might be ready for service in the Navy when needed. England did not want these trained seamen living in a distant colony. She wanted them at home where they would be ready to serve in the Navy in case of war.

The attitude of the British Government has been described as follows: "The island of Newfoundland has been considered a great ship moored near the Banks during the fishing season for the convenience of the English fishermen. The Governor was considered the ship's captain, and those who were concerned in the fishery business

his crew, and subject to naval discipline, and expected to return to England when the season was over."

The first governor, Sir Henry Osborne, was appointed in 1729. He remained in the colony only during the fishing season, and it was not until 1817 that a governor was sent out with instructions to remain on the island all year round.

In 1832 the colonists were for the first time given the right to elect an Assembly to help govern them. Following the example of Canada, the people soon began to agitate for Responsible Government. It was granted in 1855. At that time the colony had a population of 130,000.

NEWFOUNDLAND IN MODERN TIMES

Newfoundland is a stepping-stone between America and the British Isles. For that reason, it became the scene of experiments in establishing a trans-Atlantic cable, in radio, and in aviation. The first trans-Atlantic cable was laid from Ireland to Newfoundland in 1858. To-day there are twenty-eight cables connecting Newfoundland with Europe and the continent of North America. It was from St. John's, Newfoundland, that Marconi sent the first wireless message across the Atlantic in 1901. And it was from Newfoundland that Sir John Alcock and Sir Arthur Brown took off in 1922 on the first successful trans-Atlantic airplane flight.

For many years, the prosperity of Newfoundland depended entirely upon the fishing industry. When prices were high, fish plentiful, and the weather favourable, the people made a good living. When prices dropped, or fish

Crowds cheer as the laying of the first trans-Atlantic cable is completed in St. John's, Newfoundland, in 1858



were less plentiful, or the weather made fishing difficult, there was dreadful poverty, for the people had no other way of making a living.

To-day Newfoundland has a thriving pulp and paper industry. The largest paper-mill in the world is at Corner Brook. Copper has been mined since 1857, but by 1918 the mines became economically unprofitable, and so were closed down. At the present time extensive explorations are being conducted, and might result in the re-opening of them. Iron ore has been mined since 1893, and there are rich mines on Bell Island. Other minerals, including lead, zinc and fluor-spar are mined and exported. Newfoundland is now producing and exporting cement, gypsum wall-board, leather and hardwood products. Other industrial plants are under construction.

Newfoundland is no longer a "one-crop" country, although a very large part of the population still depends on the fishing industry.

Following the First World War, the price of fish dropped. Poor fishing seasons followed. With low prices and few fish, the situation became desperate. When thousands of people had to go on relief, the government could not collect enough taxes to provide for all those who needed help. The government of Newfoundland appealed to Britain. A Royal Commission was appointed to study the problem, and to determine what could be done about it. After thorough investigation it was recommended that Newfoundland should give up Responsible Government and let the government be taken over by a Commission. Accordingly, a Commission, consisting of six men appointed by the British Government, three of whom were to be Newfoundlanders, took over the management of the island in 1934.



At Gander, Newfoundland, there is an air base of world importance

The people of Newfoundland were not happy about this solution, but, under the control of the Commission, Newfoundland's financial position began to improve.

WAR BRINGS PROSPERITY TO NEWFOUNDLAND

The Second World War brought great changes. A glance at the map shows that Newfoundland is truly "the guardian of the gate". If an enemy had been able to occupy it and use it as a base for submarines and bombers, the history of the war in America would have been very different. It was essential to the safety of America that this island, which could have become a pistol aimed at the very heart of the continent, should be defended. Because Newfoundland is a stepping-stone between America and Europe, it became, in an air age, very important. Early in the war Canadian troops were sent to help guard the great airplane base at Gander and the seaplane base at Botwood. Canadian and American forces came to build military, naval, and air bases. The airport at Gander was enlarged. When the hop from Newfoundland to Iceland was found to be too long for light planes, a new base was built at Goose Bay in Labrador.

Newfoundland, which was once called "a great ship moored near the Banks for the convenience of the British fishermen", became "an unsinkable aircraft carrier stationed at the entrance to the St. Lawrence", from which planes took off to guard the sea-lanes against the German U-boats. From Gander and Torbay, the R.C.A.F. sent out, week

after week, an umbrella of planes to protect convoys across the western half of the Atlantic. Hundreds of the bombers which fought over Germany were ferried across the Atlantic to Britain either direct from Gander or by way of Greenland and Iceland from Goose Bay.

To the harbour of St. John's ships battered and damaged after encounters with submarines limped in to be repaired. There, too, survivors suffering from wounds and exposure found safe haven.

More money was being spent in Newfoundland than ever before. There was work for all at good pay. The men in the forces had money to spend. Prices for fish were high. Business was good. Newfoundland no longer needed a Royal Commission to handle her financial affairs. The time had come to let the people decide for themselves how they wanted to be governed.

NEWFOUNDLAND BECOMES THE TENTH PROVINCE

A National Convention was elected in 1946 to make recommendations to Britain for the future government of Newfoundland. Some of the delegates favoured joining Canada. Others favoured Responsible Government as

To the harbour at St. John's, Newfoundland, came ships of all nations during the war, 1939-45



they had known it before the Commission was appointed. A small group wanted the Commission to continue, and there were a few who thought Newfoundland should join the United States. When the final vote was taken in 1948, the people voted for confederation with Canada.

Newfoundland became the tenth province of Canada at midnight, March 31, 1949. April 1 was Newfoundland Day, when the new province was officially welcomed into Canada. In May the first provincial election was won by the Liberals. Joseph Smallwood, who had been a leader of the group favouring confederation with Canada, became the first premier.

LABRADOR

Labrador has been joined to Newfoundland since 1809. For some time there were disputes between Newfoundland and Quebec about the boundary, but in 1927 the present boundary was established.

For centuries Labrador was the land that people passed by. Bjarni Herjulfson sailed past Labrador on his way to Greenland. Leif Ericson sailed past it on his way to Vinland, naming it Helluland, the country of flat rocks. Cabot sailed along its rocky coast, and, after his reports about the fisheries, fishermen came to fill their ships with cod from the waters bordering Labrador and to dry their fish and mend their nets on its shores.

Cortereal, in 1501, took sixty Indians from Labrador back to Portugal. When Jacques Cartier came in 1534 he met fishing-boats seeking the harbour of Brest, already well known to fishermen. Cartier was not impressed by what he saw of Labrador. "In all the north land," he declared, "I did not see a cart-load of good earth. To be short, I believe that this was the land that God allotted to Cain."

Frobisher, Davis, and Henry Hudson sailed past Labrador, seeking the North-West Passage. They added something to the world's sum of knowledge about the rocky coast, but they did not try to get detailed information because Labrador was regarded as a barren land, no good to anyone.

When the French gave up their possessions in America, some emigrants from England came out to make new homes in Labrador but here, as in Newfoundland, the fishing merchants did everything they could to discourage settlement.

There have been some men who did not sail past Labrador. Captain George Cartwright spent several years there trading with the Eskimos and enjoying the free adventurous life of a pioneer until several of his ships were captured by the Americans during the American War of Independence. He was building up his business again when he became involved in a lawsuit and returned to England.

Moravian missionaries came to Labrador as early as 1762 and have worked among the Eskimos ever since. In order to protect the natives from unscrupulous traders, the missionaries exchange goods with the Eskimos. The Moravians have never sought profits, only enough to cover expenses. Their aim is to bring Christianity to the natives and to help them to lead good lives.

Another man who did not sail past Labrador was Dr. Wilfred Grenfell, later given the title Sir Wilfred in recognition of the work he did among the Eskimos of Labrador. He went out in 1892 as a medical missionary of the Deep Sea Mission. Through lectures and books he told the world about conditions in Labrador, and, in time, he received enough help to establish hospitals and to



SIR WILFRED GRENFELL

support more medical missionaries among the people of Labrador and Newfoundland.

To-day Labrador is an important part of Canada. It lies on the air routes to Europe. During the war the airfield at Goose Bay was a vital link in our defence line. Thousands of planes landed there on the way between Canada or the United States and England.

Much of the wealth of Labrador is still untouched and undeveloped. Most of the people still make their living by fishing and trapping, but other industries are beginning to develop. There are huge forests, from which lumber is being exported to England. Large stands of timber exist which will some day support a pulp-and-paper industry. There are great possibilities in the development of water power from many rivers and falls. The Grand Falls on the Hamilton River are higher than Niagara and capable of supplying quantities of electric power. A huge deposit of iron ore has been discovered at Knob Lake and prospectors are confident that rich deposits of other minerals await discovery.

For Further Study

1. What made the people of Prince Edward Island change their minds about joining the Dominion of Canada?

2. British Columbia made the best bargain of any of the provinces with the Canadian Government. What were the terms of this bargain?

3. There was very real danger that Nova Scotia, influenced by Joseph Howe, might withdraw from the Dominion of Canada. How was Nova Scotia persuaded to give up the idea of withdrawing?

4. What rights did the Hudson's Bay Company give up in 1869?

5. Riel — patriot or rebel or both? What do you think?

6. Draw up a list of questions you would like to ask a member of the R.C.M.P. about the work of the Force in your province. Invite a member of the Force to visit your school and answer your questions.

7. The C.P.R. made Canada a nation. Discuss this statement.

8. Draw a map of western Canada. Mark in the route of the C.P.R. and the north and south branches of the Saskatchewan River. Locate the following places: Batoche, Fort Carlton, Prince Albert, Regina, Edmonton, North Battleford. On your map put crossed swords to mark Fort Pitt, Frog Lake, Duck Lake, and Cut Knife Creek. Mark the routes followed by General Middleton, Colonel Otter, and General Strange.

9. Prepare a talk such as might have been given by a volunteer who served in General Middleton's forces when he returned to his home in an Ontario village.

10. Make a speech or design a poster such as might have been made to attract European settlers to the North West.

11. Why are Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta called "the bread-basket of the Empire"?

12. The growth of population on the prairies was so rapid that a census was taken every five years instead of every ten as in other parts of Canada. Draw a graph showing the

growth of population in Manitoba from 1871 to the present. The population of the area that later became the province of Saskatchewan was 91,279 in 1901, and the population of the area which later became Alberta was 73,022 in 1901. Draw graphs showing the increase in population of those provinces since 1901.

13. Why has Newfoundland become so important to Canada?

14. Make a mural of the story of Newfoundland. You will think of many suitable scenes. You might include: the arrival of John Cabot in the *Mathew*, fishermen in the harbour at St. John's, Sir Humphrey Gilbert and his men, conflict between the French under d'Iberville and the English settlers, planes setting out from Gander, the ceremony welcoming Newfoundland into the Dominion of Canada.

15. Newfoundland issued its own stamps until it became part of Canada in 1949. It would be possible to illustrate a story of Newfoundland with its stamps — its history, geography, wild life, industries, landmarks, and its scenery. Look up Ruth Anderson's book, *Discovering Newfoundland Through Stamps* (School Aids and Textbook Publishing Company). Add as many as you can to your collection.

16. There is a ten-cent stamp which was issued in 1935 recognizing the importance of the R.C.M.P. Can you find one?

17. Add a car ferry to your Book of Ships.



X. *Canada Grows Up*

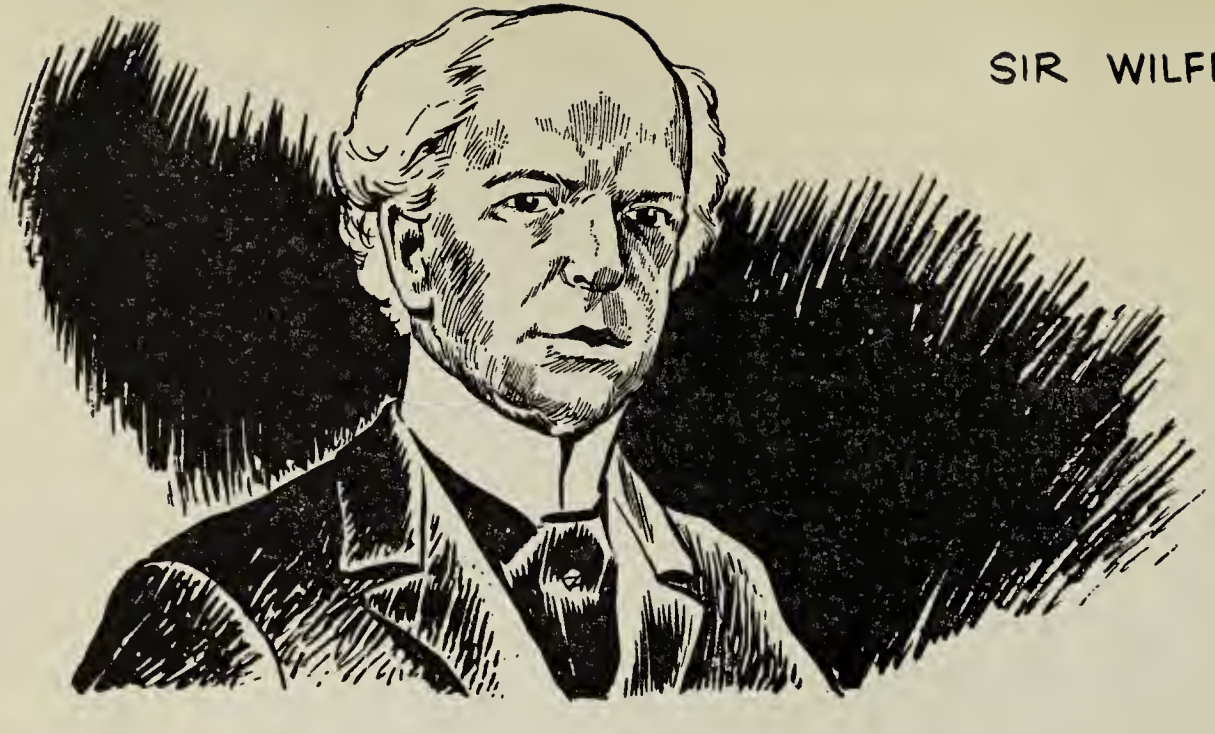
47. Canada and the Mother Country

"That new brotherhood
Of equal nations which we 'Empire' name,—
That Commonwealth in which we proudly own
Love to our peers, allegiance to our throne."
CHARLES G. D. ROBERTS: *These Three Score Years*

In 1897 people from all over the world came to England to celebrate Queen Victoria's diamond jubilee. She had been Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas for sixty years. Representatives came from Canada and Newfoundland, from Australia and New Zealand, from India and Ceylon, from every part of the British Empire to honour the Queen.

WILFRID LAURIER AT THE IMPERIAL CONFERENCE

Wilfrid Laurier, who had become Prime Minister in 1896, headed the Canadian delegation. He was a representative of whom Canada could well be proud. It was not only his distinguished appearance, his courtly manners, his scholarship, and his eloquence which appealed to the imagination of all who saw him; it was the fact that he, a Canadian of French descent, should represent the greatest of Britain's overseas dominions. He brought a new point of view about the relations between the Mother Country and the self-governing dominions. In his speeches he constantly referred to Canada as "a nation", and at the same time he always made it clear that Canada was loyal to the British Crown. Representatives from other parts of



SIR WILFRID LAURIER

the Empire listened to him carefully, for he seemed to symbolize a new conception of the term "empire", a partnership of equals within a united empire.

At this time there was a wave of feeling in Great Britain, in Canada, and in some of the other colonies in favour of a closer union between the Mother Country and the overseas dominions. There were some who wanted commercial union—no duties on goods going from one part of the Empire to another. There were some who thought that each colony should send representatives to an Imperial Parliament in England which would make laws for the whole Empire.

At first Laurier's imagination was captured by this proposal of an Imperial Parliament. "It would be the proudest moment of my life," he said, "if I could see a Canadian of French descent affirming the principles of freedom in the parliament of Great Britain." But when he came to discuss seriously the relations between Canada and the Mother Country, he saw the disadvantages of the plan. The British Empire must be, he maintained, "a galaxy of free nations", bound together by a common allegiance to the Crown, but each enjoying the fullest right to manage its own affairs. The representatives of the other dominions

followed his lead. The proposals for a commercial union, and for an Imperial Parliament, were turned down.

In his poem, "Our Lady of the Snows", Rudyard Kipling stated the position of the overseas dominions:

"Daughter am I in my mother's house,
But mistress in my own."

THE BOER WAR

The first test of Laurier's view of Canada's place in the British Empire came when war broke out in South Africa in 1899. Canada had no immediate concern with this war, but many Canadians thought that Canada should spring at once to the help of the Mother Country. Laurier did not agree. "If England is at war," he declared, "we are at war and liable to attack. I do not say that we shall always be attacked, neither do I say that we would take part in all the wars of England. That is a matter that must be determined by circumstances, upon which the Canadian parliament will have to pronounce." When Parliament met, it authorized, with Laurier's approval, sending three contingents of troops to assist the British forces. These Canadian soldiers were all volunteers, and, by their bravery and skill in battle, they won for themselves and their country great renown. But Laurier's point was made. Canada did not enter the war until the Canadian Parliament decided to enter it.

CANADA UNDERTAKES RESPONSIBILITY FOR HER OWN DEFENCE

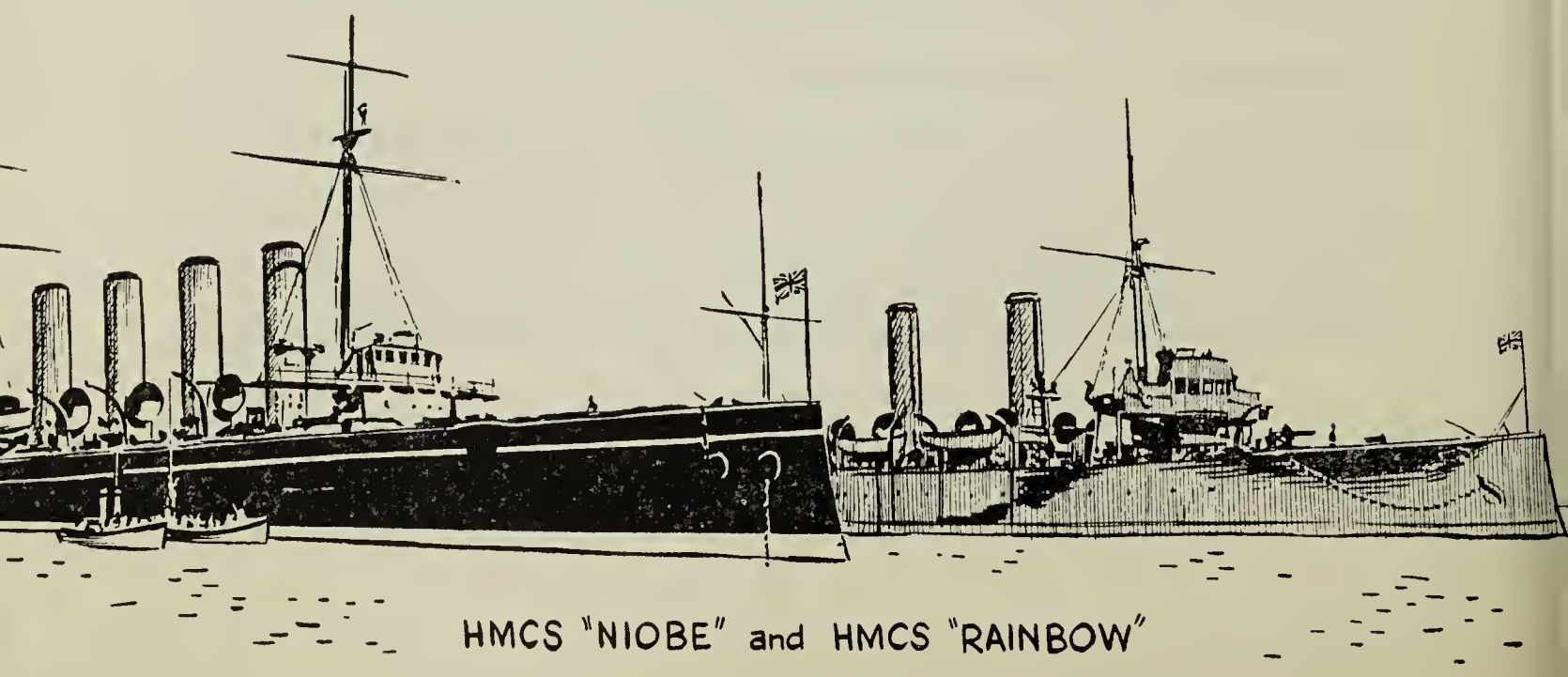
The Boer War marked the beginning of a period in which there was a striking growth in Canada's right to govern herself. It was during the war that the last British troops left Canadian soil. Shortly afterwards, in 1905, the fortifications at Halifax on the east coast and at Esquimalt

on the west were handed over to the Canadian militia. Later, Laurier decided that Canada should have her own navy. There were many people who thought this was foolish. They thought that Canada should contribute a warship to the British navy or the money to build and maintain one. But Laurier and his followers felt that Canada should have control of her own navy, even if it was only a "tinpot navy", as his opponents said it would be. In 1910 two cruisers, the *Niobe* and the *Rainbow*, bought from Britain, became the beginning of the Canadian navy. Thus, under Laurier, Canada began to assume responsibility for her own defence.

IMMIGRATION AND TREATIES

By the Immigration Act of 1911, Canada asserted her right to decide who came into Canada, even from Great Britain. Laurier also convinced the British Government that Canada should have the right to make treaties about trade with other countries without referring the matter to Britain, and that Canada need not be bound by trade treaties made by Britain unless she wished to be. Canada still collected duties on certain goods coming from Britain. The attitude of the dominions was, as Kipling expressed it in his poem, "Our Lady of the Snows",

> "The gates are mine to open
> And the gates are mine to close."



HMCS "NIOBE" and HMCS "RAINBOW"

However, though Canada maintained the right to open or close the gates to Britain at will, Canadians had no intention of leaving them wide open for any other nation, as Laurier found out when he proposed a Reciprocity Treaty which would reduce or abolish duties on goods coming from the United States. The Liberals argued that such a treaty would increase trade and bring greater prosperity to Canada. The manufacturers naturally opposed it as it would interfere with their profits. There were also some people who were afraid that more trade with the United States would mean that Canada would be taken over by her neighbour.

Reciprocity became the big issue of the election of 1911. The Conservatives, led by Robert Borden, opposed it violently. They shouted, "A vote for Borden is a vote for King, Flag, and Country." But it was the Americans who provided the strongest arguments against Laurier's plan. In the American Congress, one member declared, "I am all for it. I hope to see the day when the American flag will float over every square foot of the British North American possessions, clear to the North Pole." Laurier and the Liberals had no thought of leaving the British Empire and joining the Americans, but it soon became impossible to convince the Canadian people of that. "No truck nor trade with the Yankees" expressed the feeling of thousands of people. The Conservatives won the election and Robert Borden became Prime Minister.

"THE BOUNDS OF FREEDOM WIDER YET"

Borden's ideas about Canada's relation to the Mother Country were not very different from those of Laurier.

Succeeding prime ministers of both parties have continued to maintain Canada's right to make her own decisions.

During the First World War Borden convinced the British Government that the dominions should have a voice in planning the war since they had sent so many men into battle. He insisted, too, that the dominions should have representatives at the Peace Conference.

The Conservative Prime Minister, Robert Borden, was the first to propose that Canada should have her own Ambassador at Washington instead of depending on the British Ambassador to handle relations with the United States. Mackenzie King, the Liberal Prime Minister who succeeded him, appointed the first Ambassador to Washington in 1927.

The Imperial Conference of 1926 stated clearly, once and for all, the position of Canada and the other dominions. They are self-governing nations within the British Commonwealth.

A nation that governs itself has the right to declare war and to make peace. When on Sept. 3, 1939, Great Britain declared that a state of war existed with Germany, that did not mean that Canada and the other dominions were at war. Each decided for itself what it would do. Canada called a special session of Parliament and declared war against Germany on Sept. 10. Australia, New Zealand, South Africa all made their own declarations of war. The dominions entered the war, not only to aid the Mother Country, but because they realized that Hitler and his supporters were threatening the peace and security of the whole world. Eire remained neutral, and the fact that Eire was allowed to remain neutral proved for all the world to see that the dominions had the right to make their own decisions.

Each dominion sends its own representatives to the meetings of the United Nations. Usually the members of the British Commonwealth of Nations agree on questions which come before the Assembly of the United Nations, but not always. If one does not agree with the others, it is quite free to vote against them.

Until 1947 Canadians were described on their passports as British subjects, not as Canadian citizens. Many people objected to this. It belonged to the days before Canada grew up. Surely it was time for Canadians to be ready to describe themselves as Canadian citizens. The Act which gave them that right also defined a Canadian citizen as (1) a person born in Canada; (2) a British subject who, having lived in Canada for one year, states that he intends to remain here; (3) a person naturalized under the laws of Canada. This last clause is very important because there are many people in Canada who did not come from the British Empire who wish to become Canadian citizens. These newcomers in order to become citizens of Canada, must (1) have lived in Canada for five years; (2) be of sound mind and be able to speak and understand English or French; (3) make application to appear before a judge to prove that they are qualified to become Canadian citizens; (4) take the oath of allegiance to Canada and the Crown of the British Commonwealth of Nations.

In most of the cities of Canada evening schools have been set up where newcomers may learn to read and write and speak English, and learn about the history of our country and how it is governed.

Until 1949 appeals from the courts of Canada could be carried to the British Privy Council for a final decision. In 1949 the Parliament of Great Britain, at the request of the Canadian Government, abolished appeals to the Privy

Council. The Supreme Court of Canada is now the highest court to which any case may be taken. In the same year the use of the term "dominion" was dropped from official documents.

Until 1952, the Governor-General of Canada always came from Great Britain. In that year a Canadian, the Right Honourable Vincent Massey, was appointed to that high office.

THE COMMONWEALTH TO-DAY

The small separate colonies of the eighteenth century, which were governed by the Colonial Office of Britain, have become full-grown nations, managing their own affairs. They are partners in the British Commonwealth of Nations, bound to Great Britain and to each other, not by force of arms, but by ties of kinship, by the heritage of a common language, by the traditions of British freedom and justice which they share, and by the allegiance to a common Crown.

Queen Elizabeth II succeeded to the throne Feb. 6, 1952. As Princess Elizabeth she visited Canada in 1951 with her husband, Prince Philip. After the Coronation on June 2, 1953, the royal couple left in the winter of that year for a six-month tour of other Commonwealth countries



48. Canada and Her Neighbour

"Three thousand miles of border line!
Two nations side by side."
GUY BILSFORD: *A Century of Peace*

TWO NATIONS AT PEACE FOR OVER A CENTURY

The boundary between Canada and the United States extends for over three thousand miles from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Along the whole border there is not a single fort. Not a single gun points across it. Only once since the United States became an independent nation has there been war between the two countries.

There have been disputes about boundaries, as there were sure to be between two nations both expanding to the west through unsettled territory. Often people on both sides of the boundary became angry and there was real danger of war. Fortunately, since 1814, all disputes have been settled without war. Sometimes the disputes were settled by negotiation, that is, by discussion between representatives of both countries. Sometimes they were settled by arbitration, that is, by the judgment of an outsider agreed upon by both nations.

TREATIES ARE BETTER THAN WAR

Within three years after the end of the War of 1812-1814, a treaty, known as the Rush-Bagot Treaty, was made between the United States and the British, limiting the number of armed vessels each nation might have on the Great Lakes and on Lake Champlain. This was a very sensible treaty. Canada and the United States did not need armed vessels on the lakes unless they expected to be at war. This treaty was made in the faith that these neighbours would not go to war again. It was also agreed

that no fortifications would be built along the boundary between Canada and the United States.

The treaty which ended the American War of Independence had not defined the boundaries between Canada and the United States clearly. By the terms of the treaty made after the war of 1812-1814, commissions were to be appointed to settle the boundaries which were still under dispute. A commission is made up from a number of men from each country who meet and discuss the question. They examine all the facts and come to an agreement.

The first boundary to be examined by a commission was the boundary from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains. The men who drew up the treaty after the American Revolution stated that a line due west from the Lake of the Woods to the Mississippi should be the boundary. It is obvious that these men did not know much about the geography of North America, for a line due west from the Lake of the Woods does not touch the Mississippi. The commission decided that the 49th parallel of latitude should be the boundary.

Beyond the Rocky Mountains the territory was to be open to traders of both nations. When settlers began to make their homes in Oregon it was necessary to decide on the boundary beyond the mountains. The Americans wanted all the west coast as far north as Alaska. The British claimed the territory as far south as the mouth of the Columbia. In 1846 a commission decided that the 49th parallel should continue to be the boundary west of the mountains as well as east of them.

The boundary between Maine and New Brunswick was settled by a commission.

The last boundary to be decided was the boundary between British Columbia and Alaska which was not settled until 1903. The Americans had bought Alaska

from the Russians. Few people lived there and it was not until the discovery of gold in the Yukon that it became important to settle the boundary.

The members of the commissions which had settled the earlier disputes had been from Great Britain and from the United States. The commission which settled the Alaskan boundary in 1903 was made up of three Americans, two Canadians and one representative from Great Britain. To-day Canada makes her own treaties without the help of a British representative. Canada has grown up.

Disputes about fisheries on the Atlantic coast, and the seal fisheries on the Pacific were also settled by commissions. To-day there is a Permanent International Joint Commission which decides all matters of dispute along the boundary between Canada and the United States.

CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES ARE GOOD NEIGHBOURS

Canada and the United States are about the same size. There are, however, about twelve times as many people in the United States as there are in Canada. And there are many more large cities in the United States than in Canada. The Americans had time to build up a prosperous manufacturing trade before Canada had enough people to support large factories.

Although Canada looks very large on the map, much of its area is not suitable for settlement. More of the United States is suitable for settlement. In the south the Americans can grow cotton, and such fruits as oranges, lemons, and grapefruit, which cannot be grown in Canada. Throughout the United States the growing season for many fruits and vegetables is longer than it is in Canada because the climate is milder there.

We all know that the people of Canada and of the United States get along well together. Many business

firms have branches both in Canada and in the United States. Thousands of Canadians have gone to the United States to make their homes. Thousands of Americans have come to Canada. In fact, more people have come to Canada from the United States than from any other country.

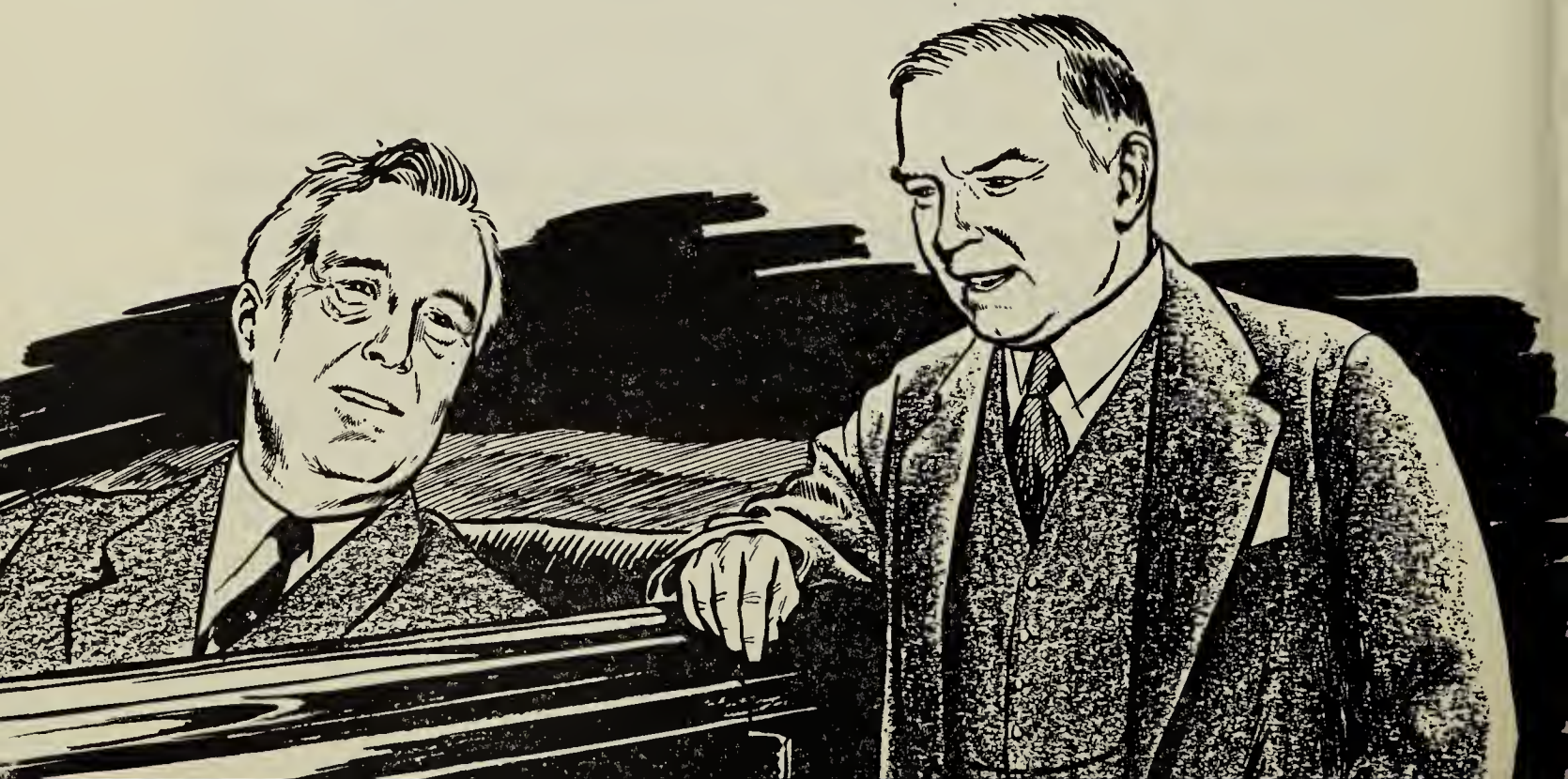
Every year thousands of people from Canada visit the United States, and every year thousands of Americans come to Canada. We speak the same language, we read the same books, we listen to many of the same radio programmes.

Twice within thirty years Canadians and Americans have fought side by side in a world war.

Even before World War II broke out the Americans showed how friendly their attitude is towards Canada. When he was visiting Canada, President Franklin D. Roosevelt declared, "The Dominion of Canada is part of the sisterhood of the British Empire. I give to you assurance that the people of the United States will not stand idly by if domination of Canadian soil is threatened by any other Empire."

Later, in August 1940, Prime Minister Mackenzie King met President Roosevelt at Ogdensburg and there they agreed that Canada and the United States would set up a

Mackenzie King and Franklin D. Roosevelt meet to decide on ways their two countries could co-operate during the war



Permanent Joint Board of Defence. They made a solemn pact that, if Canada were attacked by any nation, the United States would help to defend the country, and, if the United States were attacked, Canada would be her ally. When the Japanese attacked the United States in December, 1941, Canada declared war on Japan immediately.

Throughout World War II Canada and the United States worked together. After the war ended the Canadian and the American armed services continued to co-operate, secure in the belief that, if war should come again, they will certainly be allies.

49. The First World War

"For all we have and are,
For all our children's fate,
Stand up and meet the war,
The Hun is at the gate!"
RUDYARD KIPLING: *For All We Have and Are*

In June, 1914, shots rang out in the street of a little Austrian village. The heir to the Austrian throne and his wife were assassinated by a young Serbian. The assassin was a member of the secret organization, the Black Hand, who had drawn the straw which fated him to be the one to fire the fatal shots. This was the spark that started the First World War.

For years all the nations of Europe had been preparing for war. The Kaiser of Germany was demanding "a place in the sun", colonies and more territory. Europe became an armed camp, as the other nations, fearing that war could not be avoided, began to strengthen their defences and to look for allies. Germany, Austria, and Italy joined in the Triple Alliance. Britain, France, and Russia formed the

Triple Entente, pledged to help each other against attack by an enemy.

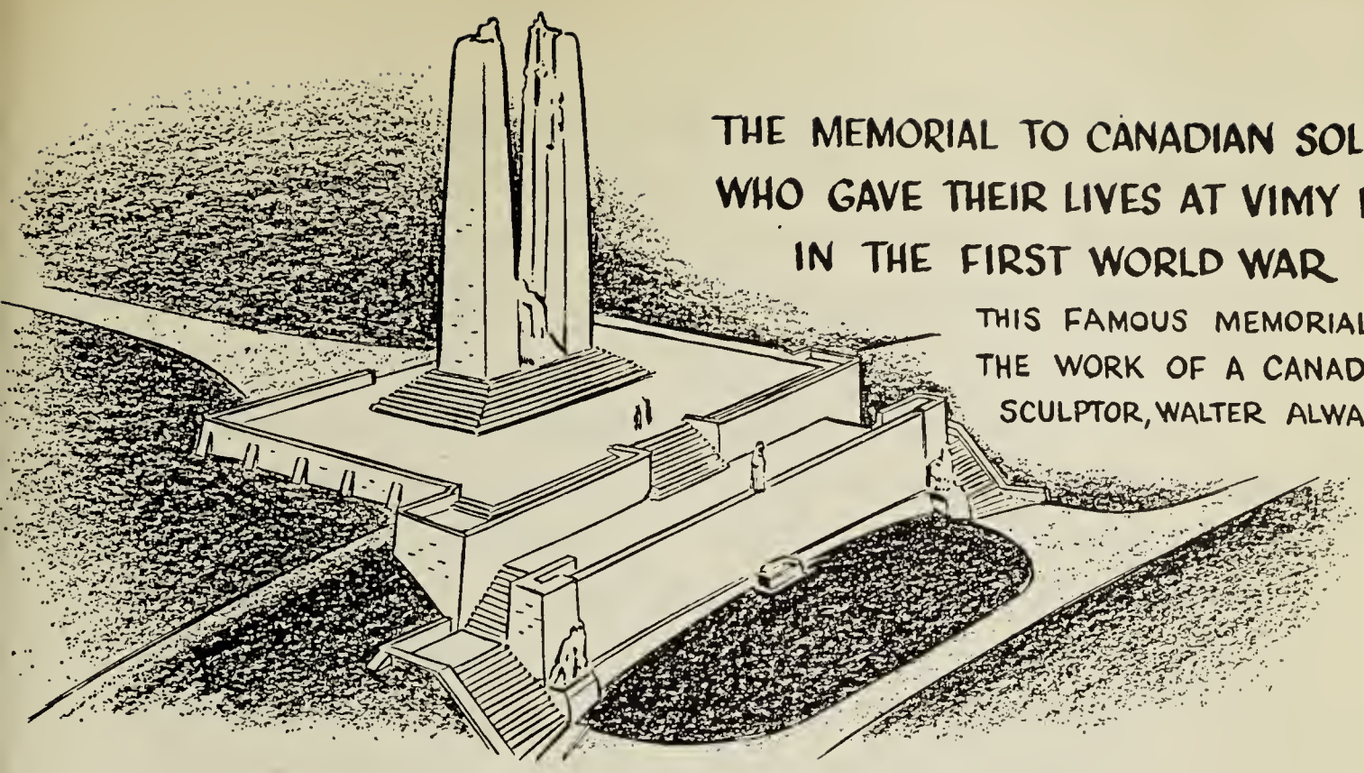
THE OUTBREAK OF WAR

Austria demanded satisfaction from Serbia for the assassination of the Archduke, but Serbia could not agree to the terms without surrendering her freedom. Russia took Serbia's side. Germany declared war on Russia. France came in to support her ally. So the trouble spread like a blazing fire in a dry forest. For a few days the British hesitated, hoping that peace might still be maintained. But when the Germans began to march through Belgium, Britain came into the struggle, because Britain was bound by treaty to preserve the neutrality of Belgium. For "a scrap of paper", as the German chancellor contemptuously called the treaty, the British Empire declared war on Germany on August 4th, 1914.

CANADA AT WAR

Canada was ill-prepared for war. We had as yet no navy, no air force, no army worthy of the name. Nevertheless, Canadians in the Atlantic coastal patrol battled valiantly against the German submarines in the struggle to keep the sea-lanes open between Canada and Great Britain. Over a quarter of the Royal Air Force were Canadians, and it was a Canadian, Colonel "Billy" Bishop, who shot down more enemy planes than any other flyer during the war—72 in all. We had only a few trained soldiers, but, less than three months after war was declared, Canada sent to England a force of 33,000 men, a larger number of soldiers than had ever before crossed the Atlantic. Before the war was over, more than 600,000 Canadians were in uniform, and over 400,000 of them were overseas. For a country of Canada's size and resources, this was a very large contribution to the war effort.





THE MEMORIAL TO CANADIAN SOLDIERS WHO GAVE THEIR LIVES AT VIMY RIDGE, IN THE FIRST WORLD WAR

THIS FAMOUS MEMORIAL IS THE WORK OF A CANADIAN SCULPTOR, WALTER ALWARD.

From Newfoundland over 5,000 men joined in the struggle against Germany, a substantial contribution for so small a population. Some of them joined the British army, navy, or air force. The Newfoundland regiment fought with great courage. From the Battle of Beaumont Hamel, July 1, 1916, of 753 Newfoundlanders who went into battle, only 68 returned. July 1 is Memorial Day in Newfoundland.

CANADIANS IN BATTLE

On the battlefield Canadian soldiers covered themselves with glory. The First Canadian Division landed in France in February, 1915. Their first great battle was at Ypres in April, 1915, where the Germans let loose a heavy fog of yellow poison gas, a devastating weapon never used before in any war. With desperate courage the Canadians stood firm. The unit next to them was overcome by the gas and forced to draw back. Half the Canadians died, but the survivors held the line and kept the Germans from breaking through to the English Channel.

From this time forward the Canadians came to be recognized as among the best troops in the allied armies. Lloyd George, in his *War Memoirs*, wrote, "Whenever the Germans found the Canadian corps coming into line, they prepared for the worst."

Canadians played a valiant part in the long-drawn-out battle of the Somme in 1916. They stormed Vimy Ridge in the spring of 1917. They captured the last ridge at Passchendaele in the autumn of 1917. They formed the spear-head of the British attack in northern France in the famous last hundred days during which the German defences finally crumbled. On Nov. 11, 1918, just before the Armistice was declared, the Canadians entered the town of Mons, the very place where the British first met the advancing Germans in 1914. As the Canadians entered the town, the chimes rang out with *Tipperary*, the favourite marching song of the army. The war was over.

Canadian troops were among those chosen to cross the Rhine and occupy Germany. The strains of *O Canada* and *The Maple Leaf Forever* were heard on German soil.

CONSCRIPTION

At first, there were more volunteers for active service than the government was ready to train. As time went on fewer men came forward to enter the armed services. Sir Robert Borden decided that if the Canadian forces were to be kept up to full strength it would be necessary to introduce conscription—that is, compulsory military service for every able-bodied man of military age. Laurier did not agree that conscription was necessary. He maintained that there would be enough volunteers to carry the war through to a finish. His supporters in Quebec were very much opposed to conscription. Many Liberals disagreed with him on this matter, and, as a result, the Liberal

party was split. Borden succeeded in forming a coalition government, made up of Conservatives and Liberals who approved of conscription. In the election of 1917 Borden and his supporters won by a large majority. Canada had decided "to fight to the finish".

THE HOME FRONT

Modern wars are not won on the battlefields alone. Factories ran twenty-four hours a day to make munitions. Food was exported to Britain. Money was raised for the Red Cross, the Salvation Army, the Y.M.C.A., and all the agencies that were helping the soldiers. Women organized to knit socks and scarves for soldiers and sailors, to send parcels of food to the battalions from their districts, to send parcels to the prisoners of war. People saved their pennies and their dollars to buy War Savings Stamps and Victory Bonds. The people of Canada on the Home Front, young and old, made their contribution to help win the war.

50. Twenty Years of Peace

"Peace hath her victories
No less renowned than war."
JOHN MILTON: *To the Lord General Cromwell*

The first job that faced the government when the war ended was to bring home the soldiers who had played such a valiant part in the struggle, and to help them to return to civilian life. It took a long time to bring them all home and to arrange for their discharge from the army. Canada treated her returned men well. Hospitals were established for those who had not yet recovered, and for those who would never recover from their wounds. Pensions were provided for the disabled. Free training was offered to those who wanted to learn a new trade. Those who

wanted to continue their education at school or university were given an opportunity to do so. A Land Settlement Board was set up to help returned men to establish themselves on farms.

CANADA ADJUSTS TO PEACETIME

In spite of all the government could do, it was not easy for all the returned men to secure jobs. Many factories which had been making munitions now had no market for their goods. The price of wheat went down. The government had urged farmers to grow more wheat during the war, but now the rest of the world could not afford to buy Canada's wheat. Taxes were high. They had to be high because we had to pay for the war.

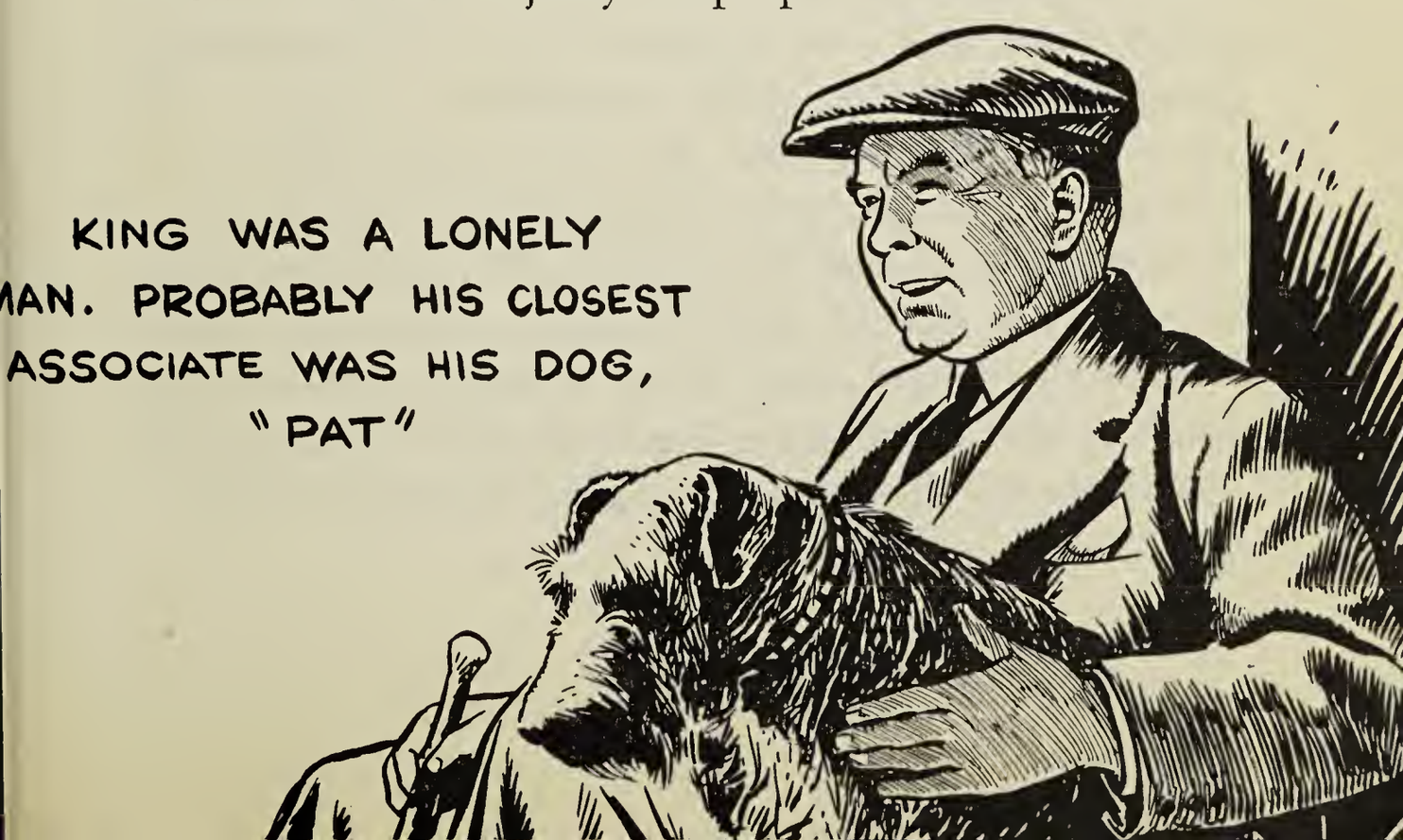
There was widespread discontent. The cost of living had gone up during the war but wages had not risen enough to meet the new cost of living. People had put up with hardships during the war, but they believed that when the war was over they should not have to do without the things they wanted. People became puzzled, and many became angry. They knew that some men had made money out of the war. The returned soldiers who could not find jobs thought that their country was not grateful for their services.

Both the Grand Trunk Railway and the Canadian Northern found themselves in difficulty. There was not enough traffic to maintain their transcontinental lines now that the war was over, and Europe did not need so much of our wheat. The opening of the Panama Canal took some of the freight traffic away from the railways. Costs of operation had risen sharply during the war. The only solution seemed to be for the government to take over these two lines. By 1920 they were both incorporated into

the Canadian National Railway, owned by the people of Canada and operated under government control.

As always when times are hard, many people began to blame the government. Sir Wilfrid Laurier had died in 1919, and William Lyon Mackenzie King became the new leader of the Liberals. Once the war was over, many Liberals who had joined Borden to enforce conscription returned to their own party. The country was ready for a change of government. In the election of 1921 the Liberals were victorious, and Mackenzie King became Prime Minister, an office he held for over twenty-two years.

Mackenzie King was a grandson of the Reform leader, William Lyon Mackenzie. He served in Laurier's Cabinet as Canada's first Minister of Labour, where he showed great skill in persuading opposing groups to agree to a compromise. Like Laurier, King held that his first duties were to keep Canada united and to maintain Canada's position as a self-governing nation within the British Commonwealth of Nations. He realized, too, the importance of friendly relations with the United States. It was not easy to keep the French-speaking and the English-speaking groups united, to win the Second World War, for instance, but King managed to do it. He was a lonely man, a bachelor, with few close friends, but he always knew what the majority of people in Canada wanted.



During his term of office he saw Canada grow enormously in wealth and in importance in world affairs. When he retired in 1948, he had been Prime Minister longer than any other prime minister in the history of the British Commonwealth. He died in 1950.

THE ROARING TWENTIES

Less than five years after the First World War ended, Canada was again enjoying prosperity. The price of wheat went up again. Once more there was a demand for Canadian wheat and grain overseas. With improved seed wheat, and new and better machinery, production increased. Farmers opened up new areas in the Peace River district and in northern Quebec. A railway was built to Churchill on Hudson Bay so that western wheat could be carried more cheaply to Europe. Cities grew and there was plenty of work for men in the building trades. The Welland Canal, through which ocean-going ships could pass, was opened in 1930. The Panama Canal, completed in 1914, encouraged the growth of Vancouver and Victoria on the Pacific coast.

Business was good. The average Canadian income was higher than it had ever been before. Motor cars became common. Hundreds of people found jobs making cars or running gasoline and service stations. A demand arose for better roads, and every province began a road-building programme. The first public broadcasting stations were opened in Canada in 1922 and before long thousands of families had bought radios. More and more power plants were being built and the citizens of towns and villages who had not enjoyed the advantages of electricity before were ready to buy electric stoves, washing-machines, irons, toasters, and refrigerators. More and more factories were built to supply the goods that people were eager to buy.



The dust storms of the early thirties destroy many prairie farms

Stories spread about men who had made a fortune overnight speculating in stocks or in grain. Thousands joined in the mad rush to gamble in the market—in industrial stocks, in oil stock, in mines, in wheat, oats, barley, or rye. This was happening not only in Canada, but in the rest of the world. Suddenly, on Oct. 29, 1929, the boom broke. Prices fell. Thousands of people lost all they had invested. The Great Depression began.

THE GREAT DEPRESSION

The depression that followed the boom was the worst the world has ever known. Factories closed, since no one could afford to buy the goods they were producing. Thousands of workers lost their jobs. Young people graduating from school and from college tramped the streets looking for work. Many took to "riding the rods" of the freight trains to seek jobs. Prices of farm products dropped. Wheat, which had been as high as $3, fell to 35¢ a bushel. The farmers had no money with which to buy goods.

To add to the difficulties, the western provinces endured the worst drought in their history. Saskatchewan suffered most. For eight years, scarcely any rain fell. The hot summer sun burned the earth to a dry powder and the winds whirled the good topsoil away. Many farmers abandoned their farms.

The depression and the drought forced the people of Canada to think about the problems of caring for people in distress. Before the First World War many people believed that anyone who wanted to work could make a living for himself and his family, and few thought that the government should be responsible for looking after the unfortunate. Starting with the provision Canada made for returned soldiers, however, a new attitude began to develop. The depression and the drought made it clear that a man might be unable to pay his own way through no fault of his own. Some people began to argue that the government should provide either work or relief for the unemployed. There were others who were certain that some other solution should be found for the problem. They advised the unfortunates to "tighten their belts" and look for a job, insisting that prosperity was "just around the corner".

Everyone wanted the government to do something to improve the situation but no one seemed to know just what it should or could do. One thing was certain. Whatever the government was doing, it was not ending the depression. In the election of 1930 the Liberals were defeated and the Conservatives, led by Richard B. Bennett, came into power. In his election speeches Bennett promised to "banish the spectre of unemployment". He began work projects, building roads and public buildings. He raised the duty on goods coming in from other countries hoping in that way to stimulate manufacturing in Canada. But the depression grew worse. Provinces and cities and towns were not able to collect enough taxes to provide for their own unemployed and the Dominion Government had to make large grants of money to help provide relief. By the end of 1934 over a million Canadians were still unemployed.

NEW POLITICAL PARTIES

Two new political parties arose whose leaders thought they had a plan to end the depression. The Co-operative Commonwealth Federation, usually known as the C.C.F., was led by J. S. Woodsworth, a Methodist minister who had worked among the poor in Winnipeg and Vancouver. He advocated that the government should take over and operate the banks, railways, and large industries of Canada, and use the profits for the good of all the people of the country. The Social Credit Party, founded by William Aberhart of Alberta, was certain that times would improve if the money system of Canada was changed. Though these parties have not succeeded in getting many members elected to the Canadian Parliament, the Social Credit party went into power in Alberta in 1935, and in British Columbia in 1952, and the C.C.F. party in Saskatchewan in 1944.

BETTER TIMES ONCE MORE

In the election of 1935, Mackenzie King and the Liberals went back into power. King made some profitable trade agreements with the United States. World conditions began to improve. The price of gold went up and the gold mines of northern Ontario opened up again. Slowly business improved, factories expanded, building began once more, and the worst effects of the depression wore off.

THE KING AND QUEEN COME TO CANADA

In the early summer of 1939, King George VI and Queen Elizabeth toured Canada from coast to coast. For the first time in history the King attended a session of the Canadian Parliament to give royal assent to the bills which had been passed. A special blue and silver train took the royal visitors across the country. Everywhere cheering

crowds welcomed them. The West was still poor after the long years of drought and depression but it made a brave show with flags and bunting. People came miles to see the royal train pass. In Regina, 24,000 children from the surrounding districts assembled to see the King and Queen. It rained, the first good rain after the long drought, and people were sure the royal visitors had brought good fortune and better times.

On their way back east, the King and Queen went to Washington to visit President and Mrs. Roosevelt. The King laid a wreath on the tomb of George Washington, who had led the armies in the war which made the United States independent of Great Britain. The Americans welcomed the royal visitors as enthusiastically as the Canadians had. It was an historic visit—the first time a reigning monarch had visited either Canada or the United States.

WAR CLOUDS ON THE HORIZON

The depression was lifting. Conditions in Canada were improving. But thoughtful people could see a dark

King George VI and Queen Elizabeth visit Canada in 1939



shadow ahead. War clouds were gathering in Europe. Fearing and dreading another war, the nations waited too long to unite to stop Hitler in his march to conquer Europe. Time was running out.

51. The Second World War

"Take up our quarrel with the foe:
To you from failing hands we throw
The torch—be yours to hold it high!
If ye break faith with us who die,
We shall not sleep, though poppies grow
In Flanders fields."

COL. JOHN MCCRAE: *In Flanders Fields*

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS FAILED TO KEEP THE PEACE

The League of Nations was formed after the First World War in the hope that in it the nations would work together to prevent war. At first it had some success in settling disputes between nations, in helping countries to rebuild after the devastating war, and in persuading governments not to build up great armies and navies. But it failed to keep the world at peace.

When Japan attacked China in 1931, the League expressed its disapproval but its member nations did not unite to stop Japan. Mussolini, dictator of Italy, showed that he did not need to fear the League by sending troops to seize Abyssinia. Again the League protested, but did nothing. Henceforth no one feared the League. It had lost its power.

HITLER IN POWER IN GERMANY

Many Germans were still puzzled and bitter about their defeat in 1918. When Adolf Hitler declared that Germany had not been defeated in war, but had been be-

trayed by the Jews and the Communists in their own country, there were many who were glad to believe him. He convinced his followers, who became known as Nazis, that by struggle and sacrifice, Germany could once more become a great power. Those who opposed him were put out of the way, either by death or by imprisonment in a concentration camp.

Hitler's first move was to seize Austria. Then he seized Czechoslovakia. The other nations protested but they did not take any action. Then he made an alliance with Italy. Now the nations saw that Hitler must be stopped. When, in September, 1939, he invaded Poland, Britain and France declared war.

CANADA AT WAR AGAIN

The day Hitler invaded Poland, Mackenzie King summoned Parliament to meet. A week later, on September 10th, Canada declared war against Germany. Canadians realized that Hitler was threatening the freedom of the world. They knew, too, that Canada would be ruined if Germany controlled the seas, because Canada depends on world trade. Canadians had fought beside Britain, France, and the other dominions against Germany in the First World War and they did not hesitate to enter the second one.

In spite of all the warnings thoughtful people had given, Canadians had hoped, until the last dread moment, that war could be avoided. We had fewer than 4,000 trained men in the navy, 4,500 in the army, and about 4,600 in the air force. At once the War Department called for volunteers. And volunteers poured in faster than the War Department could outfit them.



At Dunkirk, the British soldiers are rescued by a fleet which included civilians in small boats

HITLER'S FORCES OVERRUN EUROPE

Poland fell before September was over. During the winter came the "phony" war, when there was little action except at sea. Armies were training, factories pouring out equipment, both sides preparing for the struggle to come. It was a war of nerves, everyone waiting anxiously to see where the enemy would strike. In the spring Hitler struck. His armies overran Denmark, Holland, Norway, Belgium, and France.

Then came the glorious but tragic evacuation of Dunkirk. The British were driven back to the port of Dunkirk, and there the soldiers stood, enduring a hail of bombs from German planes. The sea at Dunkirk is too shallow for big ships. Over the radio came the call for small boats to volunteer to rescue the men trapped on the beach. Fishing-boats, private yachts, little motor-boats, even row-boats crossed the Channel. The weather favoured the British. The sea was calm and there was a dense fog.

Over 335,000 men were taken back to Britain. They had lost their equipment, they had suffered a humiliating defeat, but they were home, ready to fight again.

The loss of military equipment when France fell was very serious. Britain was now almost defenceless. Everyone expected Hitler to strike at Britain next. Factories worked night and day to turn out new equipment. During these months, Canadians stationed in Britain were the only well-equipped troops ready to defend the island. Days went by and the dreaded invasion did not come. Hitler had decided to wipe out the British air force first and to "soften" the people by bombing. He hoped to make them ready to surrender. But he did not know the British. They prepared desperately to fight to the end. Winston Churchill declared, "We shall defend our island, whatever the cost may be; we shall fight on the beaches; we shall fight on the landing-grounds; we shall fight in the fields and in the streets; we shall fight in the hills; we shall never surrender."

Night after night German planes came over to attack harbours, naval bases, factories, and cities. Thousands of citizens were killed or wounded, and many more were made homeless by the bombing and the fires which followed the bombing. Ordinary citizens worked all day and spent the night fire-watching, rescuing people trapped in bombed buildings, and caring for the wounded and homeless. By the middle of March, 1941, 25,000 British civilians had been killed and over 35,000 wounded. King George VI said, "We are all now in the front line." The British and Canadian Air Forces, though outnumbered by the Germans, fought valiantly against the invading planes.

In June, Italy joined Germany against the Allies. Hitler was so certain of victory that he now made a great mistake.

He declared war on Russia. Though the Russians were driven back to Moscow by the Germans, they fought every inch of the way. It cost Hitler far more to invade Russia than he had expected.

WAR IN THE PACIFIC

In December Japan made a surprise attack on the American naval base at Pearl Harbour in the Hawaiian Islands. This finally brought the United States into the war, and Canada at once declared war on Japan.

CANADIANS IN ACTION

Three months after the war broke out, the First Canadian Division was in England, but it was at Hong Kong in 1941 that Canadian troops first met the enemy. Two thousand men from the Royal Rifles of Quebec and the Winnipeg Grenadiers were stationed there to support the British garrison. On Christmas Day, after two weeks of sturdy resistance, the garrison had to surrender. The survivors were put in a Japanese prison camp, where many of them died as a result of poor food, forced labour, and the brutal treatment they received from the Japanese.

Again, as in the First World War, Canadian airmen won great renown. Forty-eight squadrons of the R.C.A.F. took part in operations overseas. Thousands of Canadian airmen served in the R.A.F. all over the war theatre. The R.C.A.F. also looked after the British Commonwealth Air Training Plan by which men from Britain, Australia, and New Zealand were trained in Canada for service overseas.

By 1945 the Royal Canadian Navy had 368 vessels, mostly corvettes, frigates, and mine-sweepers. During the war, ships of the Canadian navy served on the Murmansk run, in the Aleutians, in the South Pacific, wherever they were needed. The Canadian navy supplied 109 ships and

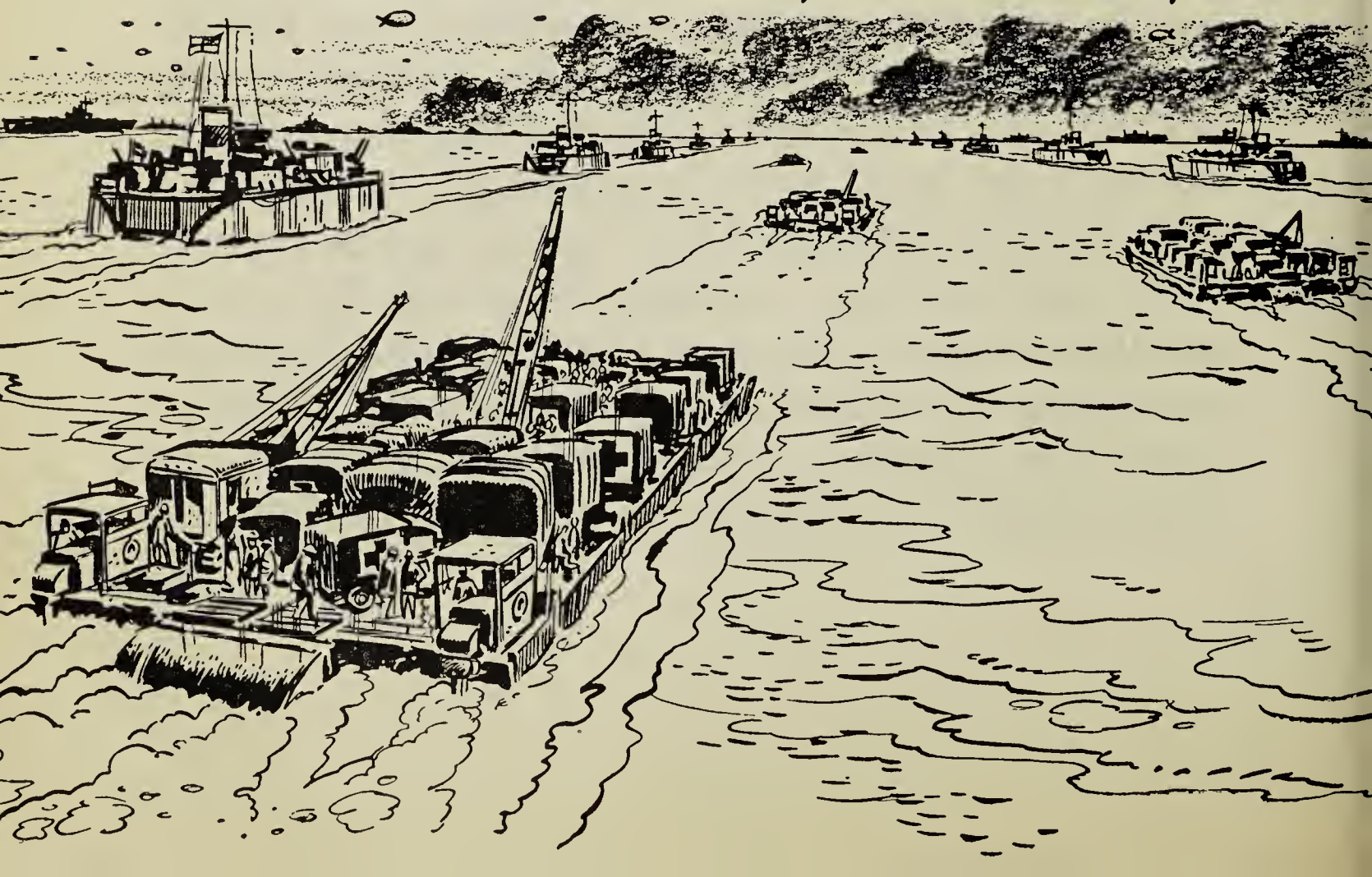
10,000 men for the first invasion on "D-Day". But its greatest task was the mighty struggle, in the Battle of the Atlantic, to keep the sea-lanes open so that men and supplies could be taken across to Britain.

The Second Canadian Division made the costly experimental raid at Dieppe in August, 1942. This raid was planned in order to find out how strong the German defences were and how a successful landing could be made. The defences were much stronger than the Allies had expected and over half the attacking force were casualties, killed, missing, wounded, or taken prisoners of war.

The First Canadian Division took a valiant part in the campaign in Sicily and the Canadian Army Corps fought bravely in the operations in Italy.

On "D-Day", June 6, 1944, members of the Third Division were among the first to step on to the beaches of Normandy. The lessons learned at Dieppe had not been forgotten. The men who gave their lives in the Dieppe raid saved thousand of lives on "D-Day". From the time the Allies landed in Normandy until the war ended, the Canadian troops were in the thick of the fight. The Allies

The invasion forces are on their way to land in Normandy



fought their way steadily through Normandy, through Belgium, into Holland, and into Germany. Meanwhile the Russians pressed in from the east until they met the British and American forces.

VICTORY IN EUROPE

On April 30, 1945, Hitler, realizing he had been defeated, shot himself. On May 2nd, the German forces in Italy surrendered to Field-Marshal Alexander. The Allies celebrated "V-E Day" on May 8th.

THE ATOMIC BOMB

The war was not over yet. Japan was still fighting.

All the nations engaged in the war had set their scientists to work to invent new and more powerful weapons. The Germans invented rocket bombs which could be launched from great platforms and directed towards England. Several nations were at work trying to find some way of using atomic energy. When the Allies learned that Germany had a secret weapon, before the rocket bombs were first sent over to Britain, they were afraid that the Germans might have succeeded in making atom bombs. However, it was the Allies who produced the first atom bombs. Early in August an atom bomb was dropped on Hiroshima, and a few days later another fell on Nagasaki. It was impossible for the Japanese to hope to fight against such a weapon. They surrendered on August 14th. The war was over.

THEY ALSO SERVE

In modern warfare the whole nation is at war. Every citizen over sixteen years of age was ordered to register his name, age, and the work for which he was trained. The National Resources Mobilization Act required all the

citizens "to place themselves, their services, and their property, at the disposal of His Majesty . . . as may be deemed necessary or expedient for securing the public safety, the defence of Canada, the maintenance of public order, or the efficient prosecution of the war, or of maintaining supplies or services essential to the life of the community". The National Service Board had the power to direct everyone to the place where he was most needed and where he could be most useful. For the first time, women were taken into the army, the navy, and the air force. Over a million women went into factories to produce the equipment needed for the war.

To prevent a great increase in the price of the articles everyone had to buy, a Wartime Prices and Trade Board was set up. Price ceilings were put on some goods. Sugar, butter, meat, tea, coffee were all rationed. So was gasoline.

Industry went to war. Factories were reorganized to produce goods needed for war. Raw materials needed for war supplies were assigned by the Department of Munitions and Supplies to where they were most needed. Hundreds of articles Canadians had been accustomed to find in the shops were either in short supply or not to be found anywhere. Before the war ended there were no new cars for sale, no refrigerators, electric stoves, or electric washing-machines, no metal toys. There were no nylon stockings. Nylon was used to make parachutes for the air force.

Agriculture went to war. The Agricultural Supplies Board was set up to stimulate the production of food—grain, dairy products, and meat. Larger quantities of food were shipped to Europe than ever before in Canada's history.

Volunteers collected for the Red Cross, the Salvation Army, the Y.M.C.A., the Y.W.C.A., and all the agencies



which were serving the armed forces. Volunteers set up canteens for the men in the armed services. Women knitted and sewed for the Red Cross and for Bundles for Britain, and packed parcels of food for overseas. Children collected salvage and added their pennies to the collections for the Red Cross. Blood-donor clinics were opened where citizens donated pints of blood to build up the supply of blood plasma which saved the lives of thousands of wounded.

Every good citizen, young or old, shared in the war effort. Over a million men and women were in the army, the navy, or the air force. Others worked in factories, making war equipment, or on farms producing food. Young and old did without luxuries they wanted in order to help win the war.

Canadians were called upon to lend their money to the government. Children bought War Savings Stamps out of their allowances, and their parents bought Victory Bonds. During the war in nine Victory Loan campaigns the Canadian people loaned the government over twelve billion dollars.

52. Canada Marches On

"And we will build, upon that day, another hope
(because these cities are young and strong),
And we will raise another dream (because these
hills and fields are young and green)."

KENNETH FEARING: *Pact*

In the darkest hours of the war President Roosevelt declared:

"We look forward to a world founded on four essential human freedoms.

The first is *freedom of speech and expression*—everywhere in the world.

The second is *freedom of every person to worship God in his own way*—everywhere in the world.

The third is *freedom from want*—which, translated into world terms, means economic understandings which will secure to every nation a healthy peacetime life for its inhabitants—everywhere in the world.

The fourth is *freedom from fear*—which, translated into world terms, means a world-wide reduction in armaments to such a point and in such a thorough fashion that no nation will be in a position to commit an act of physical aggression against any neighbour—anywhere in the world."

In Canada and the United States the people have for a long time enjoyed the first two freedoms. We have freedom of speech. We can criticize our government. We can agitate to have our government changed. We have freedom of worship. And we are making progress toward the other two, freedom from want and freedom from fear.

FREEDOM FROM WANT

Until this century there were few people who believed it was the business of the government to see that its subjects enjoyed freedom from want. There were more people who held that life was a struggle—"every man for himself and the devil take the hindmost". If a man was out of work, ill, or poor, many people supposed it must be through some fault of his own. There were, it is true, some charitable people who gave money and persuaded others to give money to maintain orphanages, old folks' homes, and hospital wards for the poor. It was always hard to raise enough money to run these institutions and most people thought it was a disgrace to have to go to one.

In the years following the First World War, public opinion began to change. The government accepted the responsibility for helping the returned soldiers. During the Great Depression and the drought on the western

plains, Canadians began to realize that the government must look after the unemployed and the homeless.

THE PROVINCES BEGIN TO PROVIDE FOR THE UNFORTUNATE

Acts were passed, first in one province, then in another, to protect citizens from want. A Mother's Allowance Act was passed in 1916 in Manitoba to provide for widows with young children. By 1949 all provinces except Newfoundland had passed Mother's Allowance Acts. Under the terms of the Workmen's Compensation Acts in all provinces employers are required to make some provision for employees injured while at their work. By 1952 all provinces, except Prince Edward Island, had laws governing the minimum wages which may be paid, and the number of hours employees may be required to work.

FAMILY ALLOWANCES AND OLD AGE PENSIONS

Since 1944, the government sends a cheque monthly to every mother to help support her children under sixteen. Since 1951 every Canadian citizen over seventy receives a monthly old-age pension cheque.

PROVISION FOR THE UNEMPLOYED

Employers and their employees are required to contribute to a fund from which workers receive unemployment insurance if they lose their jobs. There is also a National Employment Service, managed by the government, to help citizens to find jobs.

HOUSING

During the depression few people could afford to build new homes. Many families were obliged to live with relatives, or to manage in one or two rooms. Men who

had money to invest were afraid to risk building houses or apartment blocks because they did not believe they would be able to collect a fair rent for them. During the war, when everyone who was able to work could find a job, and could afford to rent or buy a home, it was obvious that there were not nearly enough houses to supply the demand. Then it was impossible to get materials or labour for construction.

In cities where factories were working overtime making munitions and war supplies, there were not enough houses for the men and women who came to work there. The government needed the products of these factories, but workers could not be expected to stay where they could not find homes for their families. Therefore the government had to provide houses to rent to them. After the war it continued to build "Wartime Houses" for returning service men. The National Housing Act of 1944 made it possible for citizens to borrow government money on easy terms to build houses or apartment blocks. In the first four years after the war over 318,000 houses or suites were erected for families who wanted homes.

HEALTH

President Roosevelt spoke of a *healthy* peacetime life for the inhabitants of every nation. Canada has embarked upon a vigorous health programme.

Each province has a Department of Health, or of Health and Public Welfare, set up to look after such matters as the quarantine of contagious diseases, sanitary conditions, supervision of hospitals, medical inspection of schools, and child welfare within the province. There is also a Federal Department of Health and Public Welfare at Ottawa which works with provincial departments. The work of these departments, along with greater knowledge of the

conditions which promote good health, has made a great change in the lives of the people of Canada. More babies live to grow up. There are fewer epidemics. Diphtheria and typhoid have been almost wiped out. Tuberculosis has been greatly reduced.

More has been done to develop and extend health services since the Second World War than in all our previous history. It was a great shock to Canadians to find that a large number of those who volunteered or were called up for war were not physically fit. We began to realize that a country needs healthy people and that if families cannot or do not look after their health, the government should do something about it. We all know that the nation needs able-bodied men in wartime. It is also true that in peace a healthy people will be happier, more law-abiding, and better citizens.

A National Health Grant Programme was announced in May, 1948. It set aside $30,000,000 a year for grants to assist the provinces in their health programmes. The money was used for surveys to find out what was most needed, for research in medicine, for tuberculosis and cancer control, for care of crippled children, for a programme to prevent mental illness, and to provide more free treatment for patients in Mental Hospitals. Out of the total, $13,000,000 a year for the first five years were set aside to build hospitals and to provide clinics where they are needed.

Canada has gone a long way to provide freedom from want for her people.

FREEDOM FROM FEAR

Canada and the other peace-loving nations of the world have been less successful in providing freedom from fear of war.

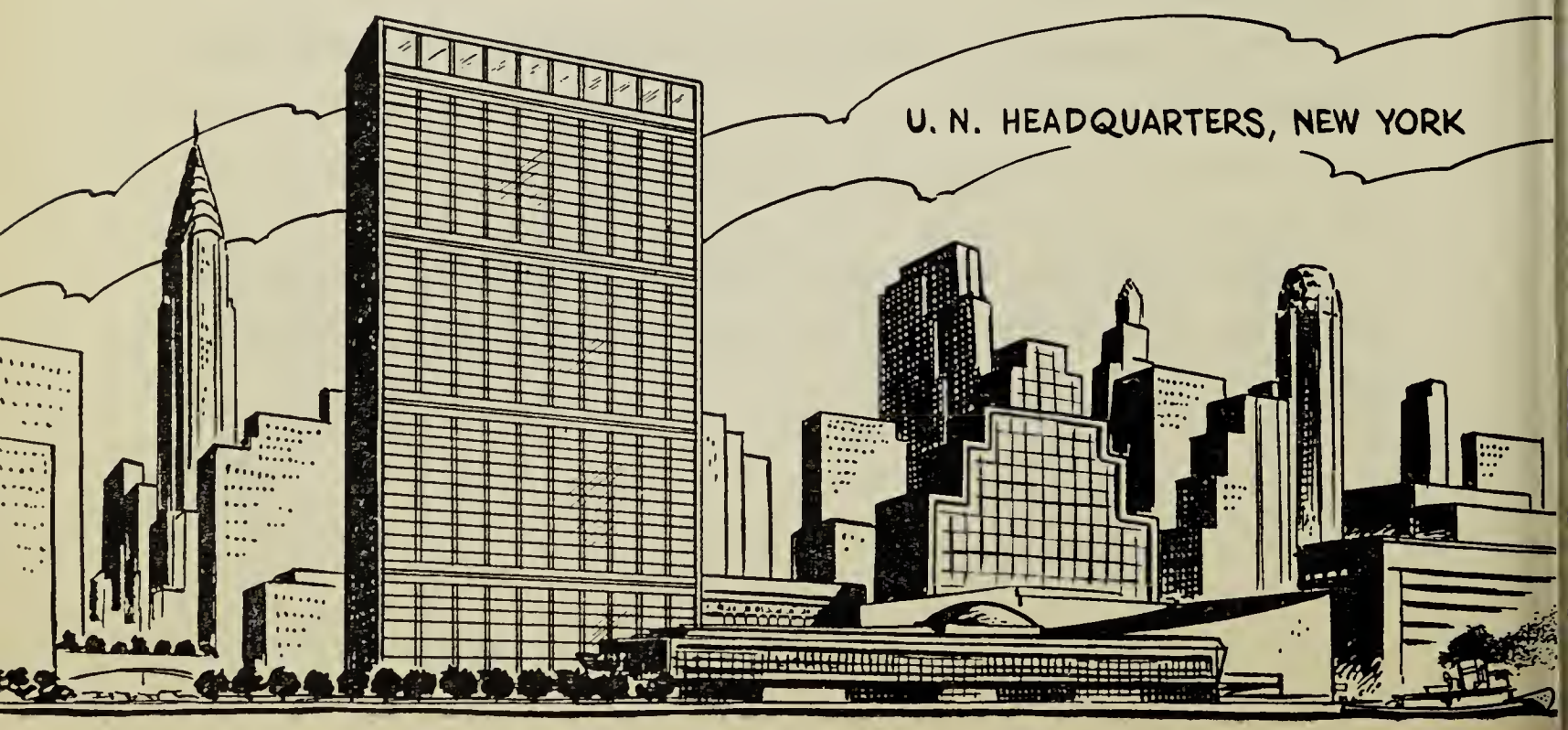
When the First World War ended in 1918, great was the rejoicing of the Allies. They had said it was "a war to end war", "a war to make the world safe for democracy". Twenty-one years later another more terrible war began. When the Second World War ended in 1945, the victorious Allies rejoiced but more moderately. No one suggested that this war had made the world "safe for democracy". Wise people everywhere realized that freedom-loving nations must be on guard every day to defend their freedom, to protect their democratic way of life.

Even before the war ended, when the leaders of the Allies could see victory ahead, they began to make plans for a world organization which would be more successful in maintaining peace than the League of Nations had been. A conference of representatives of all the Allies met in San Francisco in April, 1945, and there drew up the charter for the United Nations.

The Charter begins with these brave words:

WE, THE PEOPLES OF THE UNITED NATIONS, DETERMINED

to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and to reaffirm faith in fundamental human



rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small . . .

AND FOR THESE ENDS

to practise tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbours, and
to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security . . .

HAVE RESOLVED TO COMBINE OUR EFFORTS TO ACCOMPLISH THESE AIMS.

At first the United Nations had its headquarters at Lake Success, Long Island. By 1951 permanent quarters in New York were ready, and there to-day are the assembly halls and committee rooms and offices of the United Nations.

The United Nations Organization consists of two important bodies, the General Assembly and the Security Council.

Every member of United Nations sends representatives to the General Assembly. The Security Council has five permanent members and six who are elected by the General Assembly for two-year terms. The five permanent members are the Great Powers, China, France, Great Britain, Russia, and the United States.

The General Assembly discusses world problems but does not itself take action. These discussions are, however, very important, for they are open to the public and to the newspapers. If any nation does anything of which the other nations disapprove, the rest of the world will hear about it through the General Assembly of the United Nations.

The Security Council examines all questions which threaten the peace of the world and takes action when

necessary. Each of the Great Powers has the right to veto any proposal made in the Security Council. This has made action difficult sometimes, since Russia has used the veto often to prevent the Security Council from doing what the other members had agreed was wise.

THE NORTH ATLANTIC TREATY ORGANIZATION

Of the Great Powers, only the United States and Russia came out of the war still strong and powerful. Britain was exhausted by the struggle. Her cities had been bombed, her docks and factories damaged, and her foreign trade ruined during the war. France had been humiliated by defeat and torn by the Occupation. In China, after a period of civil war, Communists took control of the government. Russia considered this her opportunity to win the rest of the world over to Communism. Shortly after the end of the war the Communists took control of Poland, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Rumania, and Czechoslovakia. For a while it looked as though France, Greece, and Italy, too, would fall into the Communist bloc.

Because the western nations did not believe that Russia wanted world peace, representatives of twelve non-Communist countries met in Washington in 1949, there to draw up the North Atlantic Treaty. The nations which formed NATO, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, are: Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, and the United States. These nations declared their desire "to live at peace with all peoples and all governments", but they agreed that an attack against one of them should be considered an attack against all of them, and that every member would assist any member attacked by an enemy.

WAR IN KOREA

Armed forces set out to fight under the flag of the United Nations for the first time in June, 1950, when the North Korean army invaded South Korea. General Douglas MacArthur, head of the Army of Occupation in Japan, was appointed commander of the United Nations' forces. Members of the United Nations were asked to supply armed forces and equipment to settle the dispute. Canada put three destroyers at the disposal of the United Nations, sent over an air transport squadron, and a brigade of infantry troops.

In the councils of the United Nations, Canada endeavoured in every way to find a solution for the difficult problem of Korea.

CANADA'S ROLE IN WORLD AFFAIRS

Two world wars and a world depression have taught us that Canada must take her part in world affairs. We depend upon our export trade. If war or depression anywhere in the world closes markets to our wheat, our newsprint, or our minerals, thousands of Canadians are affected.

Canada is a member of the British Commonwealth of Nations, bound to the Mother Country and to the other members of the Commonwealth by common traditions and by allegiance to the Queen. Canada is a member of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, thus allied with the nations that are prepared to unite to defend their right to choose their own form of government. Canada is a North American nation, and therefore bound by common interests to her powerful neighbour, the United States. Most important of all, Canada is an active and responsible member of the United Nations, taking her full share in the brave effort to maintain world security and peace.



LOUIS ST. LAURENT SUCCEEDED MACKENZIE KING AS PRIME MINISTER IN 1948

Early in the history of the United Nations, Canada took an important place in it. Some of the smaller nations, not ready to trust the Great Powers, were more willing to follow the lead of a small nation. Canada became recognized as a leader of the "middle" nations, an interpreter of the small nations to the Great Powers, and interpreter between the United States and Great Britain.

Canada was one of the elected members of the Security Council during the years 1948 and 1949. A Canadian, Brock Chisholm, was the first Director of the World Health Organization. Lester Pearson, Minister for External Affairs, was twice chosen head of the important Political and Security Committee of the General Assembly, and in 1952 he was elected president of the General Assembly. Canadian representatives have taken a significant part in the Commission on Freedom of Information and the Press, in the Food and Agriculture Organization, and in the very important Atomic Energy Committee.

The Security Council and the General Assembly of the United Nations have not been able to assure us of freedom from fear of war. They failed to settle the difficulty in Korea without resorting to arms. We cannot be sure of "peace in our time", but the fact that sixty nations are working together to try to understand each other, to try to bring about a better world, gives mankind some hope for the future.

For Further Study

1. Draw a map of the world, colouring all the parts of the British Commonwealth of Nations in red.

2. What parts of the British Commonwealth have established their independence but still belong to the Commonwealth?

3. Why is it important for Canada and the United States to work together for defence?

4. What is being done in your community for Civil Defence?

5. People often say that everything costs much more to-day than it used to cost. Can you find a newspaper published between 1930 and 1938? Compare the prices of eggs, butter, cheese, beef, and other commodities with present prices.

6. What methods and instruments of warfare were used for the first time in World War I?

7. What methods and instruments of warfare were used for the first time in World War II?

8. What services does the government provide for us to-day which the government of a century ago did not provide?

9. What Canadians represent Canada in the United Nations?

10. Have one member of your class write to the United Nations Society in Ottawa for posters and information on the United Nations.

11. Every part of the world is more dependent on every other part than at any time in history. Find out what you can about the Marshall Plan, the Colombo Plan, the International Wheat Agreement.

12. What have Canada and the United States done to relieve the situation in Europe by permitting immigration to America?

13. Add the *Niobe* and the *Rainbow* to your Book of Ships.

14. Can you find a "map" stamp of 1898 for your collection? Collect stamps of the 1942 war-issue series. They depict a tank, the building of a corvette, a munitions factory, a destroyer. There is also a 1937 stamp depicting the Memorial Chamber of the Peace Tower.


Yesterday...
...and today

XI. *Canadians at Work*

53. From Scythe to Farm Combine

"Greater than the measure of the heroes of renown,
He is building for the future, and no hand can hold him down:
Though they count him but a common man, he holds the
Outer Gate,
And posterity will own him as the father of the State."

R. J. C. Stead: *The Homesteader*

To-day Canada is the fourth greatest grain-producing country in the world, being surpassed only by the United States, Russia, and China. Most of Canada's wheat is sold to other countries. The United States is the only country in the world that exports more wheat than Canada. One-fifth of the people of Canada live on farms and thousands of others earn their living transporting farm products and manufacturing equipment for farms. These facts give a special importance to the story of farming in Canada.

FARMING A CENTURY AGO

Pioneer farmers had to struggle against conditions not known to-day. Except on the western prairie, farmers everywhere encountered thick forests. To cut down and root out acres of trees took years of back-breaking toil.

In their first years on a farm, settlers sometimes had to sow their grain in the forest. They burned or "ringed" the trees to kill them and sowed the grain in the spaces between the stumps and trees. Farming implements were primitive. The pioneer farmer broke the ground with a hoe, cut the grain with a scythe, and threshed it on the granary floor with a flail. There were few horses or cattle. After he had cleared a space in the forest, many a farmer had to haul the plough himself. The grain was ground into flour in hand-mills or pounded on the hominy block or carried a long way to the nearest mill.

The homes of the pioneers were generally made of logs and their furniture was largely home-made. Food was usually cooked in an open fire-place, and the clothes of the family were home-spun and home-made. There were no luxuries in their homes and few comforts. While the men worked in the fields, the women cooked, spun, sewed, and did the thousand and one tasks needed in a household which depended wholly upon itself. If the pioneer farmers of Canada were heroes, there can be no doubt that their women-folk were heroines whose self-sacrificing toil has seldom perhaps been appreciated at its full value. How they accomplished all they did must always be a marvel to their descendants.

FARMING TO-DAY

Since those early days conditions on Canadian farms have improved. Farm lands which were covered with trees within the memory of living man are now completely cleared. The farms of to-day are much larger than they once were but they are more easily cultivated, since the last century has seen a wonderful development in farm machinery. The modern farmer uses a tractor to draw

large ploughs, and a combine which both cuts and threshes. Milking, a long and difficult chore, is done by electricity on the most modern farms. Cream, once skimmed from the milk by ladles or dippers, is now separated by a cream separator which on many farms is run by electricity. Many of the tasks which once took long hours of hard work are now done by machines which seem to be miracles of human inventiveness.

Science has come to the aid of the farmer. Where the pioneer exhausted the soil by growing only one kind of grain, the modern farmer has learned the advantages of rotating his crops and of fertilizing the soil. Federal and provincial Departments of Agriculture have set up experimental farms where new methods of farming are tried and new varieties of seed developed. The results of the experiments conducted on these farms are published and the modern farmer thus learns new methods without having to make his own mistakes first. Early-ripening and rust-resisting varieties of wheat, developed through long and careful experiments, have proved a great boon to the prairie farmer.

Here are two ways of milking cows





Above are pictured some of the animals bred on Canadian fur farms

New and better breeds of cattle, pigs, and sheep have been brought into Canada in order to improve the herds. As a result we now have larger, healthier animals and a resulting increase in farm incomes. Livestock, meat, hides, and cheese are important Canadian exports.

Canadian orchards have been enriched by improved varieties of fruit. The pests which once played havoc with the fruit trees on Canadian farms are now controlled by the use of chemical sprays. Canada produces enough fruit to satisfy the home market during the season, to maintain many canning factories, and to carry on a brisk exporting trade. The largest export crop is apples. Many farmers have turned their attention to the growing of sugar beets, the production of honey, maple syrup, and maple sugar for sale. In Ontario and Quebec tobacco has become a very profitable crop.

FUR-FARMING

The first fur farms were in Prince Edward Island where experiments in raising foxes in captivity proved successful over sixty years ago. Now there are fur farms in all the provinces. Mink are the most profitable fur animals, but there are farmers who breed foxes, fishers, martens, chinchillas, and rabbits.

The farmer is still at the mercy of frost, drought, disease among animals, and fluctuating prices. He has, however, a much easier life than the pioneer of a century ago. The old isolation is gone. Rural mail-delivery brings letters, newspapers, and seed catalogues right to his gate. Telephones and radios keep him in touch with his neighbours and with the news of the world. Motor cars and better roads have made it possible for the farmer and his family to reach the nearest town in a fraction of the time it took in the old days of corduroy or mud roads and springless buggies or wagons. Some farmers even fly their own airplanes. Farm homes are more comfortable and better equipped. Electricity has been installed in many, making possible the use of modern labour-saving devices.

There is still plenty of work on Canadian farms for busy hands to do, but on most farms life is no longer the grim struggle for existence it once was. Thanks to the advance of science, to wider markets, and higher prices for farm products, the farmer may make a comfortable living and enjoy luxuries and pleasures of which his great-grandfather could only dream. The past century has seen many changes in Canada but few more amazing than those in the life of the people on Canadian farms.

54. The Romance of Canadian Mining

"'Tis gold
Which buys admittance."
WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE: *Cymbeline*

From the beginning European visitors to Canada hoped to find gold, silver, and precious gems in this country. Jacques Cartier and Martin Frobisher both believed they

had found a fortune when they took "fool's gold" home with them. Although every explorer looked for gold and other precious metals, no minerals of any importance were discovered in Canada during the French period, except for some iron mines near Three Rivers. Even during the first century of British rule little was done to uncover Canada's mineral wealth. On the shores of the Arctic Samuel Hearne sought in vain for the mountain of copper the Indians had described. Except for the gold-rush in British Columbia in 1858, the history of mining in Canada did not begin until after 1880.

It was a great Canadian scientist, Sir William Logan, who first revealed to the world the possibilities of Canada as a field for the mining prospector. Sir William Logan was a geologist—a student of the history of the earth's crust. He showed that in certain parts of Canada, one might expect to find precious metals and other valuable minerals, such as oils. As a result of his work, some discoveries were made, but these were not of great importance. It was by chance that the truth of Logan's prophecies was realized. To tell here in detail the story of all the marvellous mining discoveries in Canada is impossible but the story of three or four of them, at least, deserves to be told.

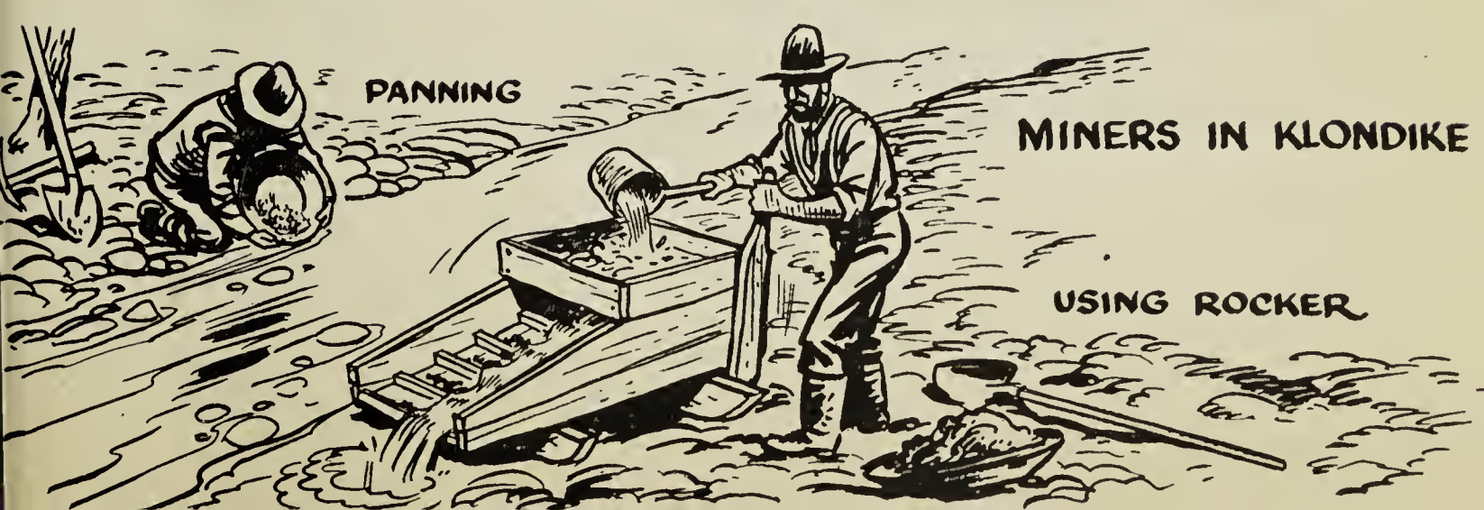
NICKEL AT SUDBURY

One of the most striking is the story of the nickel mines near Sudbury, Ontario. When the Canadian Pacific Railway was being constructed in the Sudbury district in 1883, valuable copper deposits were discovered and the Canadian Copper Company was formed to develop them. The chemist who analysed the ores taken from the mine found in them a metal which he did not know. It proved to be

nickel, of which very little had been found up to that time. Nickel is a very hard metal and, when amalgamated with steel, forms an alloy which is ideal for the manufacture of guns and armour-plate, as well as for coins. When all the leading nations in the world adopted nickel for battleships and cannons, the demand for Canadian nickel soared to unexpected heights. During the First World War nickel from the Sudbury mines brought millions of dollars into Canada, for these were the only mines in the world producing nickel in any quantity. To-day Canada produces 90% of the world's supply of nickel.

GOLD IN THE YUKON

More romantic was the discovery of gold on the Klondike River in the Yukon in 1896. The Yukon was almost uninhabited until, in 1896, prospectors made rich strikes of gold on the Klondike River. In the spring a little steamer started up the Yukon River with nearly a million dollars' worth of gold on board. When the news of a gold strike in the Klondike was spread abroad, there was a wild stampede to the Yukon. Thousands of men who knew nothing of life in the northern wilderness flocked over the mountain trail from Skagway to Dawson City on the Klondike River. Many perished from cold or hunger on the trail, others reached the gold diggings but found no gold and returned penniless. However, several fortunate prospectors staked out claims which brought them fortunes. In the year 1900 gold to the value of $22,000,000 was taken out of the Yukon. Since then the production of gold



in that area has declined. Dawson City, once a roaring mining town, became a ghost town, in which more buildings were empty than were occupied.

NORTHERN ONTARIO

Shortly after the gold-rush to the Yukon, an even more profitable discovery of precious metals took place in Northern Ontario in 1903. Up to this time Northern Ontario had been the haunt of the Indian and the fur-trader. Even the lumberman had hardly begun to penetrate that region. In 1903, however, the government of Ontario began to push a railway, the Timiskaming and Northern Ontario Railway, to Lake Timiskaming. Near Haileybury, on Lake Timiskaming, rich veins of silver and cobalt were discovered. Prospectors flocked into the Cobalt country and staked out claims, many of which have developed into silver mines of fabulous wealth.

In May, 1909, gold was discovered in the Porcupine country, north-west of Cobalt. A vein twenty-one feet wide and a huge rounded mine of quartz became the Dome mine. Later in that year, Benny Hollinger and Sandy McIntyre discovered other bodies of gold-bearing ore and gave their names to two of the richest mines discovered in that area.

MORE DISCOVERIES

Since the discovery of the Cobalt and Porcupine areas other mining-fields have come to light. In 1912 gold was discovered in the Kirkland Lake area. Gold has been discovered at Rouyn in Northern Quebec, and at Red Lake in Ontario. To-day Canada ranks second only to Africa among the gold-producing countries of the world.

Gold, silver, copper, and zinc were discovered in 1915 at Flin Flon on the border of Manitoba and Saskatchewan

but mining operations did not begin until a railway was built to connect Flin Flon with The Pas in 1928. Later the railway was extended to Sherridon where the same minerals were discovered. Gold was discovered at Goldfields in Saskatchewan, at Yellowknife in the North West Territories, and at God's Lake and Island Lake in Manitoba. Copper and nickel are being mined at Lynn Lake in Manitoba.

ELDORADO ON GREAT BEAR

In the summer of 1900, Dr. J. M. Bell and Dr. Charles Camsell, geologists in the service of the Canadian Government, made a survey of the area around Great Bear Lake. Several years later, a mining man, Gilbert La Bine, hoping to find a new area for mining operations, was studying their report. There he saw the statement that the rocky shores of the lake were often stained with cobalt-bloom and copper green. La Bine knew what that meant. Where cobalt-bloom appears on the surface, silver will be underneath. It may be in quantities large enough to be worth mining; it may not. La Bine was going to find out. He chartered a plane and had the pilot leave him with his supplies on the lonely shores of the northern lake. He stayed for three weeks, until the pilot picked him up again. In March, 1930, he returned to Great Bear Lake with a companion. As he expected, he found silver. But he also found radium, gold, copper, iron, and uranium. He called the mine Eldorado.

The world's supply of radium had been so small before the discovery at Great Bear Lake that its cost had been very high—$70,000 a gram. In a few years the radium produced from the Eldorado mines on Great Bear Lake cut the cost in half. That has been a great boon for the

people who suffer from diseases which only radium can help.

The discovery of uranium became of great importance during the Second World War. Uranium is used for releasing atomic energy. When the significance of uranium was realized, the Canadian Government took over the Eldorado mines.

RECENT STRIKES

At Steep Rock, west of Lake Superior, a lake was drained to make it possible to take out the iron found there.

In 1947 oil was discovered in the Leduc fields in Alberta. Alberta had been producing oil from Turner Valley for several years. Now these new discoveries of oil made it worth while building a pipe-line to carry the oil as far east as the head of Lake Superior.

Rich deposits of iron ore have recently been discovered in the Knob Lake area on the Quebec-Labrador border. Squadron Leader John Hone, who had been a bush pilot and prospector before he joined the air force, was patrolling the Labrador border during the war when he saw rock formations that looked promising to him. After the war, he found a company to finance an expedition to prospect that area. The prospectors discovered over three billion tons of iron ore sticking out of the landscape, as one of them said, "like raisins in a fruit cake". It is one of the world's great ore discoveries. Every man, every piece of equipment, every pound of food had to be taken in by plane until the railway from Seven Islands on the St. Lawrence to Knob Lake was completed.

Radium and uranium from Eldorado on Great Bear Lake; gold from Northern Ontario, Northern Quebec, Yellowknife, and the Yukon; silver, lead, and zinc from



The discovery of oil in Alberta greatly improves the economy of that province

the great Sullivan mine at Kimberley, B.C.; copper from Copper Cliff, Ontario, and from Flin Flon on the border of Manitoba and Saskatchewan; iron from Newfoundland, Labrador, and the area around Lake Superior; nickel from Sudbury and from Lynn Lake; oil from Alberta; coal from Nova Scotia and Alberta—and great areas of Canada still to be explored by the prospector! The early explorers were right. Canada is a country rich in minerals. But it has taken time, patience, skill, and some luck, to find the treasure.

55. "White Coal"

"Is it a fact—or have I dreamt it—that by means of electricity the world of matter has become a great nerve, vibrating thousands of miles in a breathless point of time?"
NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE: *The House of Seven Gables*

THE IMPORTANCE OF POWER

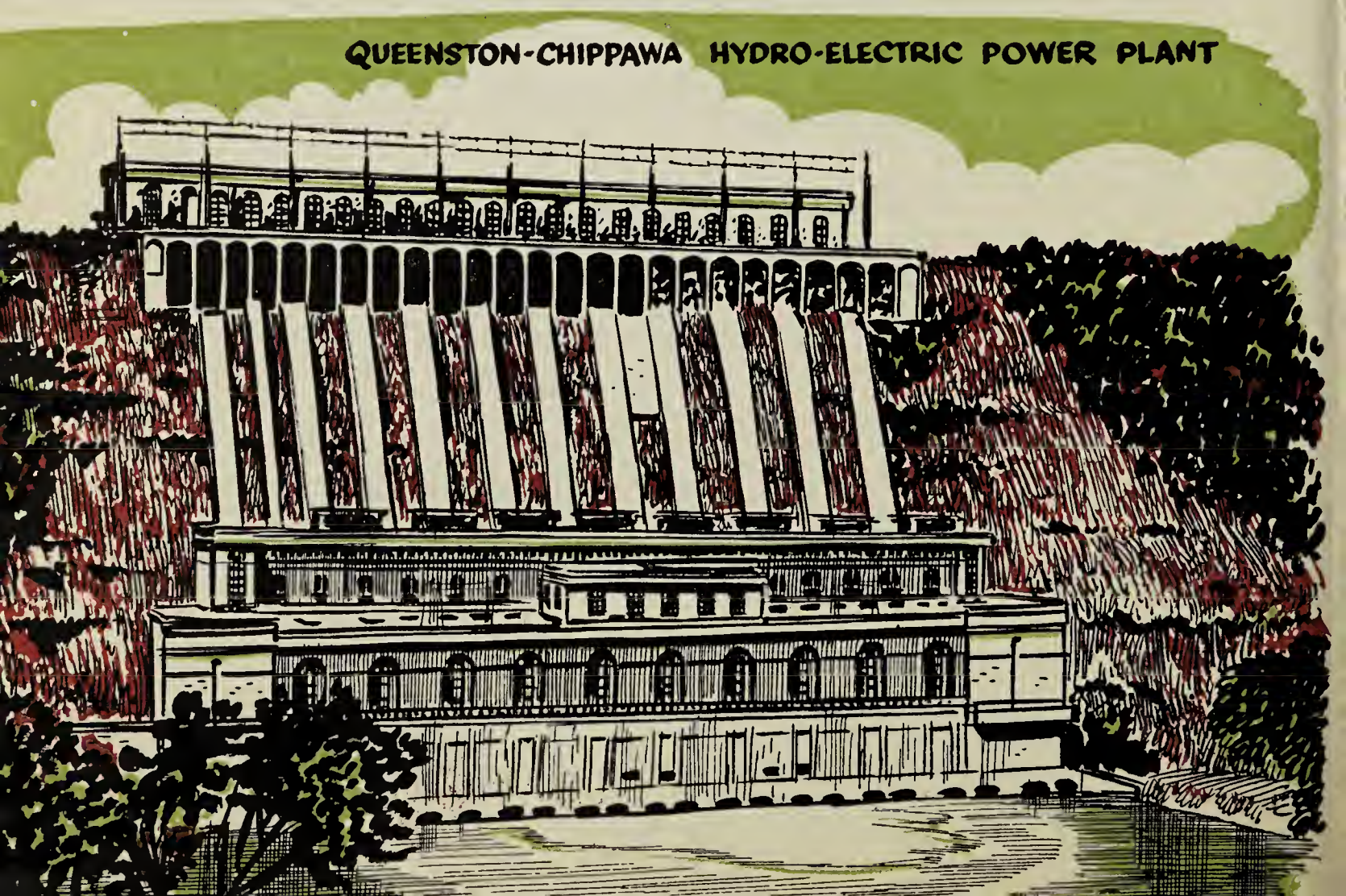
The use of electrical power is one of the marvels of the twentieth century. As everyone knows, electricity is the natural force which we see in lightning. How man has succeeded in harnessing this force is a story which cannot be told here. For some years electricity was generated only by engines driven by steam, an expensive method.

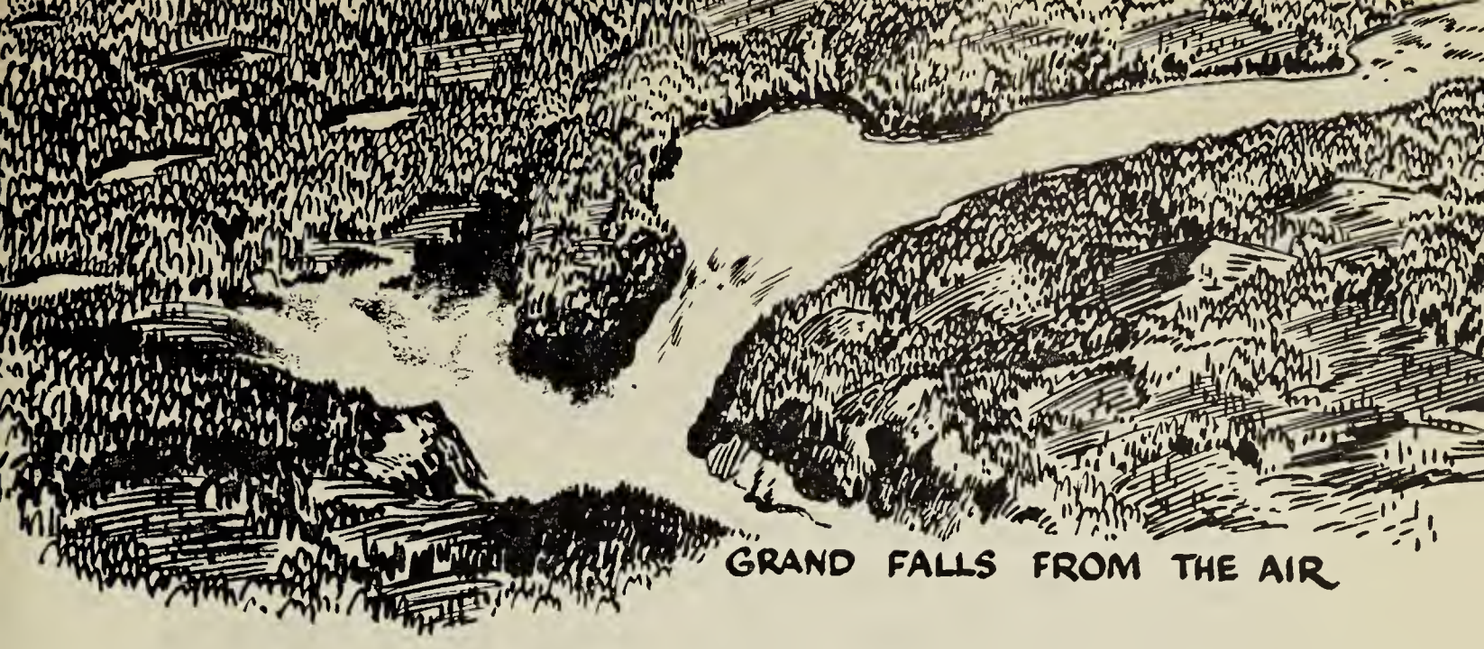
It was only toward the end of the nineteenth century that engineers saw that water-power—or as it has been called, "white coal"—could be used to produce electric power.

CANADA IS RICH IN "WHITE COAL"

There are few countries in the world which possess as much water-power as Canada. On her numberless rivers are waterfalls ranging in size from the great cataract at Niagara and the Grand Falls of Labrador to the most gradual rapids. Now that the "white coal" of these waterways can be turned into electricity, Canada has a source of power such as had never been dreamt of. Hitherto central Canada was handicapped by the fact that it had no coal which could be used for steam-engines, and had to import its coal from the United States. Now it is possible to substitute for steam-power and black coal the electrical energy derived from "white coal" and to transmit this power for great distances over electric wires.

It did not take Canadians long to set to work to develop electrical power, once they realized its possibilities. It was





GRAND FALLS FROM THE AIR

at Niagara at the end of the nineteenth century that the largest hydro-electrical plants in the world were built. At first these developments were undertaken by private companies, but in 1905 the government of Ontario set up, under the chairmanship of Sir Adam Beck, the Hydro-Electric Power Commission. In time the commission took over most of the private plants and built new plants of its own. As a result, the people of Ontario have become the owners of the largest hydro-electric power-producing business in the world and are able to sell themselves power at cost. Most of the provinces now have Hydro-Electric Power Commissions which supply power to the industries and the homes of the province. Private companies also operate many power plants.

To water-power as much as to anything else Canada owes the great expansion of her industry which has taken place during the last half century. Canadian factories are no longer dependent upon coal shipped to them from great distances. The development of cheap electrical power has made Canada a great manufacturing nation. Our factories produce textiles, clothing, furniture, pottery, aluminum, plastics, machinery, cars, and airplanes for the home

market and for export. Electric power has made possible the growth of Canada's greatest export—newsprint. Canada has the greatest pulp and paper industry in the world to-day. Canadian mines, often situated far from civilization, could not have been developed without electric power.

Electricity has brought about a great change in life in Canadian homes. Electric light has made our homes safer and more comfortable. Labour-saving devices, such as electric stoves, refrigerators, irons, washing-machines, and vacuum-cleaners have become a great boon to the housewife.

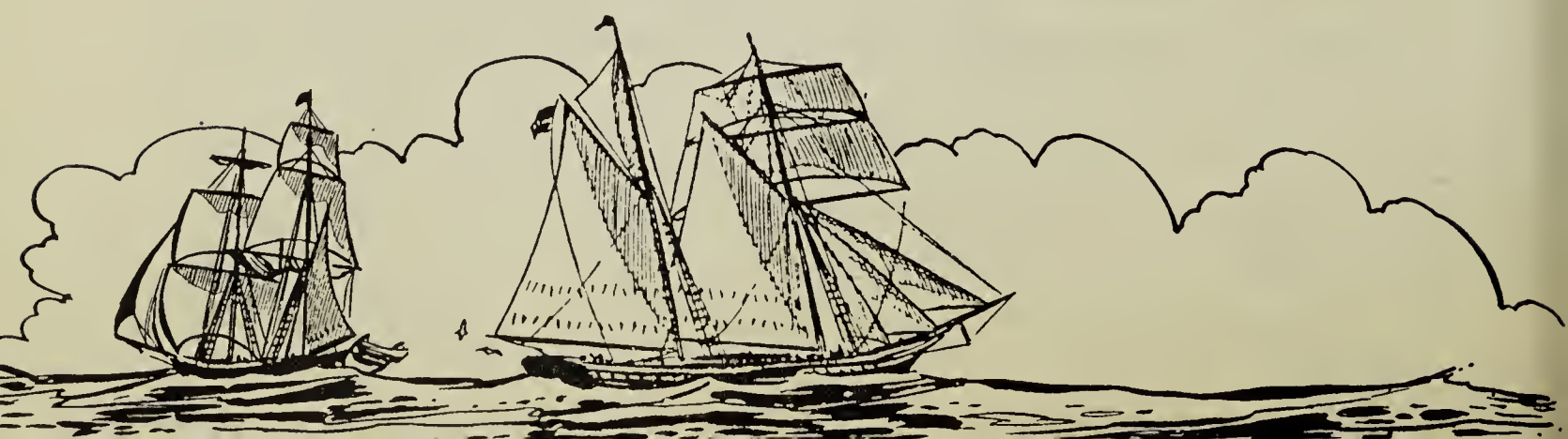
"White coal" is one of Canada's great natural resources. Although there has been such rapid development in the harnessing of water-power to provide electricity, it is estimated that Canada is developing less than a quarter of the power which can be generated from her rivers and falls.

56. Canadians on the High Seas

"They that go down to the sea in ships and do business in great waters."

PSALM CVII, 23

One does not think of Canadians as a sea-faring people. Nevertheless, Canadians have played no small part in the recent history of navigation. Canada fronts on three oceans, the Atlantic, the Pacific, and the Arctic. The Mother Countries, first France and then Britain, could be reached only by an ocean voyage. Canada soon became



a trading country and most of her trade was across the sea. It would have been surprising if Canadians had not become a people at home upon the water.

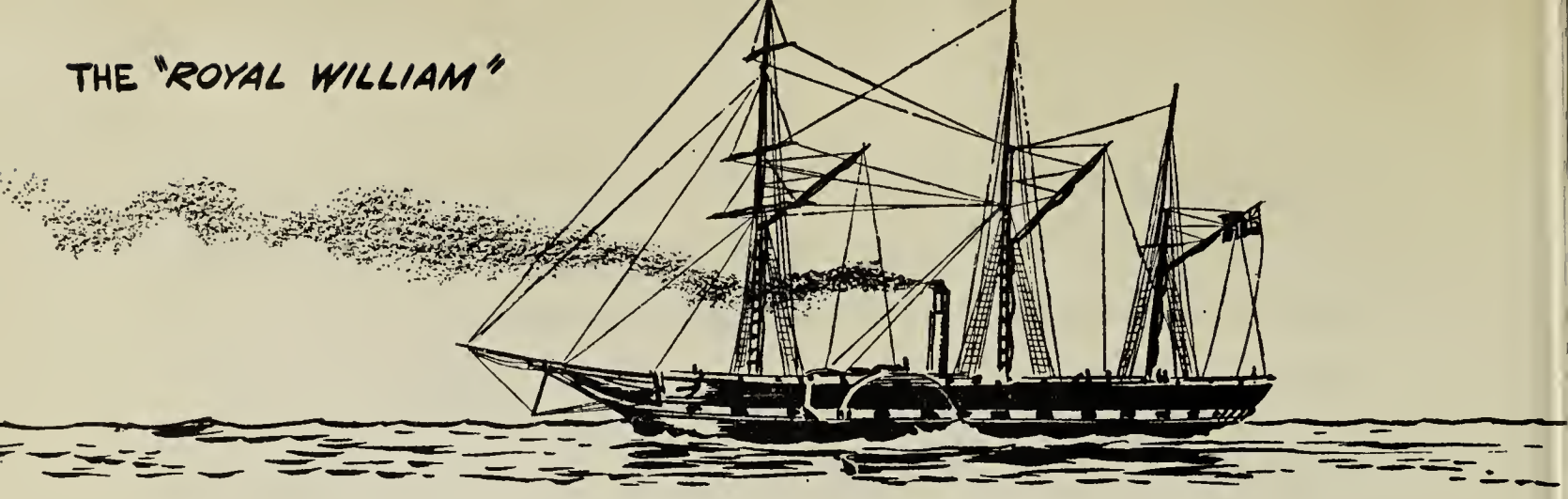
IN THE DAYS OF THE SAILING VESSELS

Even during the French period, in the days of the great Intendant Talon, Canada began to develop at Quebec a ship-building industry. Canadian sailing vessels, made of Canadian timber, sailed the high seas, carrying cargoes to and from France and the West Indies.

It was under the British flag that Canadian shipping became important. Canadian timber was so good that for many years the British navy obtained most of its masts from Canada. Quebec became a prosperous ship-building centre, and the Maritime Provinces gave birth to a fleet of sailing vessels and a race of sailors that became famous the world over. The long coast-line of Nova Scotia has many land-locked harbours close to unrivalled supplies of timber, and from these harbours went ships and men who upheld the best traditions of the British people on the high seas.

STEAMSHIPS

At the beginning of the nineteenth century steamships began to take the place of sailing vessels. The first steamship was the *Charlotte Dundas*, which was launched on the Clyde in Scotland in 1801. Six years later the first steamship in America, the *Clermont*—her engines made in Great Britain—appeared on the Hudson River, and ran between New York and Albany. The Canadians were not far behind. In 1809, two years after the *Clermont* began to run on the Hudson, John Molson of Montreal launched on the St. Lawrence the *Accommodation*, which was to ply between Montreal and Quebec. The *Accommodation* was



a small ship, with a speed of only five knots an hour. But even her engines were Canadian-made, and she may be regarded as the first wholly North American steamship in North American waters.

For a number of years steamships were considered as fit only for inland navigation. In time they were improved, and in 1830 a number of the merchants of Quebec and Halifax joined together to build a steamship which would run between these ports. This was the *Royal William*, which was built at Quebec, and launched in 1831. She made trips to Halifax, and even to Boston. But her owners found that they were losing money, and decided to send her to England to be sold. She left Quebec on August 5, 1833, coaled at Pictou, Nova Scotia, and twenty-five days later reached the port of London, all under her own steam. One other steamship, the American ship *Savannah*, had before this time crossed the Atlantic but she had made most of the way under sail. The *Royal William*, built in Canada, and manned by Canadians, was the first steamship to cross any ocean under steam alone.

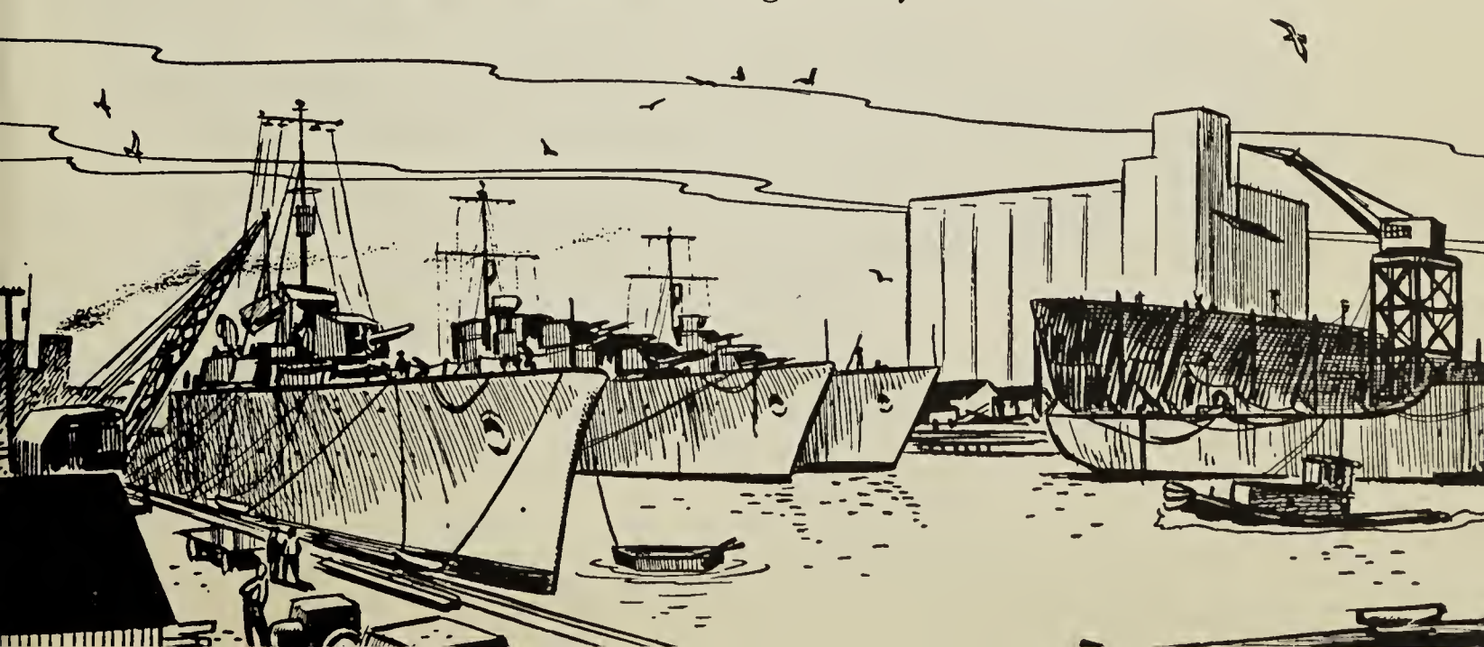
One of the shareholders in the *Royal William*, and one of the promoters therefore of its famous voyage, was a Halifax merchant named Samuel Cunard. Cunard, who was a native of Nova Scotia, knew the shipping business thoroughly, and realized the possibilities of steamship

navigation on the Atlantic. In 1838 he organized the North American Royal Mail Steam Packet Company, which began the first regular steamship service across the Atlantic, and which is to-day the famous Cunard line of steamships. Later, a young Scotsman who had settled in Montreal, named Hugh Allan, established another line of trans-Atlantic steamships. The Allan line was the first to use screw-steamers, instead of paddle-wheelers, on the Atlantic route, the first to build an Atlantic liner wholly of steel, and the first to use turbine engines. Both Samuel Cunard and Hugh Allan did much to place Canada in the front rank in navigation.

At the time of Confederation, Canada was fourth among all the countries of the world in the tonnage of her ships—a remarkable record for a country of so small a population.

The change-over from sail to steam and from wood to steel for construction during the latter half of the nineteenth century ruined many Canadian ship-building yards. This caused considerable hardship in the Maritime Provinces where many people depended upon the ship-building industry for their living. Later new ship-building centres were established at Collingwood and Midland on Georgian Bay to supply freighters and tankers for the shipping on the Great Lakes. There to-day, hundreds of miles from the ocean, are the world's largest inland ship-building yards.

The world's largest inland ship-building yards are on the shores of Georgian Bay in Ontario



During the Second World War many Canadian ship-yards became active once more and to-day ocean-going vessels designed by Canadians are being built in Canadian ship-yards.

OUR NAVY TO-DAY

Though the Royal Canadian Navy is greatly reduced from the 378 warships and the 90,000 men it had at the end of the war in 1945, it controls a fleet far greater and more effective than it ever maintained before in time of peace. It has developed a specialized anti-submarine force, with the necessary training for this type of warfare. Canadians are still at home on the high seas, and Canada remains, in this respect as in others, a true daughter of the Mother Country.

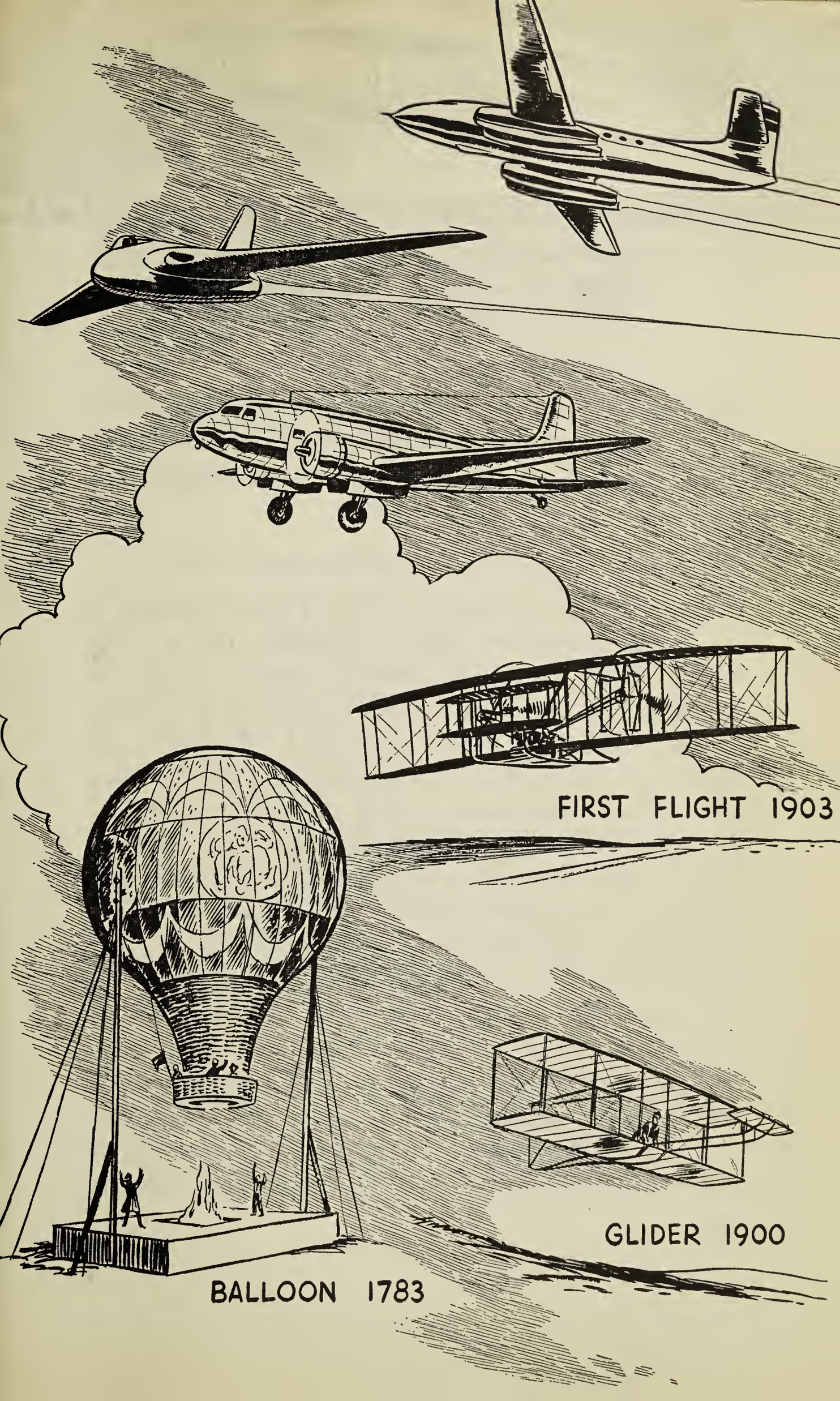
57. Canadians in the Air

"Oh, I have slipped the surly bonds of earth
And danced the skies on laughter-silvered wings;
Sunward I've climbed and joined the tumbling mirth
Of sun-split clouds."

PILOT OFFICER JOHN MAGEE, JR.: *High Flight*

There has been in the twentieth century nothing more exciting than the development of aircraft. From the beginning of time man has been a creature of the ground. Gradually he learned to swim and sail, and made himself, to some extent, at home in and on the water. But it has been only within the last half century that he has learned to fly.

Balloons were used during the nineteenth century, and experiments were made with gliders. Men became certain that it was possible to construct a machine which could be flown, and experiments were made in many countries.


FIRST FLIGHT 1903
GLIDER 1900
BALLOON 1783



The first airplane flight in the British Empire is made in the *Silver Dart* in Nova Scotia

The credit for being the first to build a flying machine is given usually to Orville and Wilbur Wright of Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, who made the first known flight in a power-machine in December, 1903.

THE FIRST FLIGHT IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE

The first airplane flight made by a British subject in the British Empire was made at Baddeck Bay in Nova Scotia. Alexander Graham Bell, the famous inventor of the telephone, was working on the problem of building a plane which could carry a man and be driven through the air by its own power. Among the young men he chose to work with him was a young engineer named Jack McCurdy. After some experiments in kites, the members of Bell's group began to work independently. When Jack McCurdy had built his machine, *Silver Dart*, he took it to Alexander Graham Bell's place at Baddeck.

Feb. 23, 1909, was the date set for the trial flight. On the appointed day the people of Baddeck came out on the ice to watch the experiment. *Silver Dart* was a biplane with an engine of fifty horse-power and a wing-spread of forty feet. It weighed half a ton. Few of the onlookers believed that it would fly. But it did! It rose to a height of thirty feet and came down half a mile away. The next

day McCurdy took *Silver Dart* up again, and travelled eight miles in eleven minutes, fifteen seconds.

To-day all the larger air-fields in Canada are equipped with instruments which make it possible for the pilot to set his plane down safely in the air-field even when fog or rain make it impossible to see the landing-strips. When instrument landing was being officially inaugurated in Winnipeg in 1948, the ceremony was performed by the Hon. J. A. D. McCurdy, Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia, the same Jack McCurdy who took *Silver Dart* up over Baddeck Bay in 1909.

THE FIRST WORLD WAR SPEEDS UP THE DEVELOPMENT OF AIRPLANES

After *Silver Dart's* first flight, the science of aeronautics advanced very rapidly and many successful flights were made. Then came the First World War. The nations at war immediately saw the possibilities of the airplane, both for observation behind the enemy's lines and for bombing. The planes built during the early years of the war were flimsy structures, made of canvas and spruce, very different from the planes of to-day. During the four and a half years of the war airplane building was developed as it might not have been in twenty years of peace. Neither money nor science was lacking to bring it to the highest point of efficiency possible, and among the youthful fighters on both sides there were many gallant and daring men who made ideal pilots.

BUSH PILOTS

Hundreds of young Canadians served in the air force with great distinction. When the First World War ended, they returned to civilian life, but many of them longed to fly again. There were few opportunities for flyers in those

days. Some flew at fairs, doing stunts to entertain the audience, or taking up passengers who had enough money to pay for a ride and enough daring to take a chance.

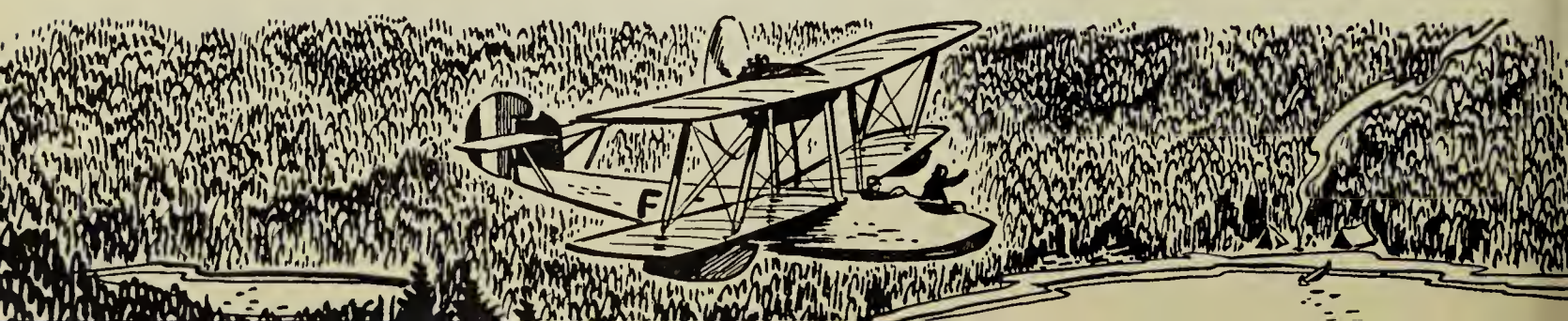
Before long more opportunities came. In 1920 the government established the Royal Canadian Air Force and veterans flocked to offer their services. The government undertook to map out the whole of Canada by means of photographs taken from the air. Quebec engaged pilots to make fire patrols by air, and other provinces soon followed Quebec's example. When oil was discovered at Norman Wells on the Mackenzie River, the Imperial Oil Company sent men and supplies in by plane.

Then came the opening of Canada's northland. The airplane became the "taxi" and the "flying box-car" of the north. Without planes much of the treasure of the north would still be undiscovered. Gilbert La Bine went in to Great Bear Lake by plane. It is doubtful if the radium and uranium which are so important to Canada could have been mined if it had not been for the bush pilots.

Usually the planes followed the general course of the rivers which had been the transportation routes of earlier times. Trips which had taken weeks by canoe or dog-team took only a few hours by plane. The bush pilots flew in single-engined planes, without radios, without weather reports. There were few landing-strips. In summer the pilots used floats to land on the rivers and lakes, in winter, skis for landing on ice. In emergency landings they looked for a level strip or flew low and drove the plane between two trees. It was a dangerous and adventurous life.

The bush pilots carried any passengers who wanted to fly and any cargo they could get—mail, food, furniture, machinery, even horses and cows. Sometimes a trapper

The bush pilot is most important to those who live in our vast northland



took his dogs to his hunting-grounds by plane. To men in the isolated mining and lumber camps of the north the bush pilots brought mail and news of the world outside. They made many "mercy" flights to bring sick or injured persons out to hospitals or to take serums and medicines to the camps.

At one time there were over sixty bush lines operating in Canada. For many years more freight was carried by air in Canada than in any other country in the world.

TRANS-CANADA AIRLINES

In 1937 a monoplane, *Silver Bullet,* carrying a group of officials of the newly organized Trans-Canada Airlines, flew across Canada, from Montreal to Vancouver, in seventeen hours and eleven minutes. T.C.A. had been organized as part of the Canadian National Railway system to provide a swift modern system of transportation across this broad continent.

The *Silver Bullet's* flight in 1937 was a trial run. Two years later, on April 1, 1939, T.C.A. had its fleet of five ten-passenger Lockheed Electras ready for traffic. Meanwhile airports had been laid out, emergency fields prepared, meteorological services set up, operators and mechanics trained, pilots and stewardesses selected to look after the planes and the passengers. Before long T.C.A. had planes flying across the Atlantic from Montreal to London.

In 1948 the four-engined forty-passenger North Stars replaced the D.C. 3's which had replaced the Lockheeds. The North Stars are larger, faster, and more comfortable than any planes used in Canada before. Because they have more cargo space, the Canadian Government decided that henceforth all first-class mail would be carried by air at the regular letter rate. Before that time a letter

sent by air cost seven cents. Canada was the first country in the world to send mail by plane at the same rate as by railway or steamship.

In the same year passenger service was opened up to the British West Indies and to Bermuda.

CANADIAN PACIFIC AIRLINES

In 1942 the Canadian Pacific Airlines bought a number of bush lines and brought them under one management. No competing line is allowed to fly planes on the T.C.A. east-west routes, but the Canadian Pacific Airlines planes carry passengers and freight down the Mackenzie Valley to Aklavik and from the settled areas to other northern points. In 1949 C.P.A. began air service to Australia and New Zealand by way of China and Japan.

When the first airplane landed at The Pas, Manitoba, in 1920, a Cree Indian asked the pilot, "How does the Thunder Bird stay up in the sky?" Not many people in Canada can explain how the airplane stays up in the sky, but we are all aware of the fact that it does, that plane travel is quick, comfortable, and, according to statistics, as safe as any other method of travel. It has revolutionized travel, and speeded up our mail service. It has opened up the northland much more rapidly than it could have been by the slower land and water travel. It is the airplane and the bush pilot, not the covered wagon or the canoe or the York boat, which have pushed back the boundaries of civilization to the north.

For Further Study

1. Most of the farm implement companies have booklets showing the history of farm machinery. See if you can get some of these booklets and observe the great developments that have taken place in farm machinery in the last century.
2. One group of pupils might draw a large picture map

of Canada showing the principal agricultural products of each area.

3. One group of pupils might draw a large map of Canada marking in the minerals obtained in each area.

4. Kitimat and Arvida are two outstanding enterprises undertaken by the aluminum industry. Find out what you can about them.

5. "Ghost towns" are found in some mining areas. What is a "ghost town"? What happens to change a prosperous community into a "ghost town"?

6. The Department of Mines and Natural Resources may be able to supply you with information about the mineral wealth of your own province. Have one member of the class write for information.

7. Make a large relief map (salt and flour) of Canada showing the places where electricity is generated on a large scale.

8. Find out how long it would take you to go to London, England, from the nearest airport. How long would it take you by train and steamship?

9. Make a collection of pictures of airplanes showing the development of airplane construction since the First World War.

10. Canada's principal cities have grown very rapidly. Have small committees each make a graph showing the increase in population of one of these: Toronto, Montreal, Vancouver, Winnipeg, London, Ont., Hamilton, Calgary, Edmonton, Saskatoon. (You can find the population figures in *The Canada Year Book.*)

11. Add to your Book of Ships: a schooner of the Clipper class, the *Royal William*, a modern ocean liner, a mine-sweeper, a corvette, a tribal destroyer, the aircraft-carrier *Magnificent.*

12. See if you can find the following stamps for your collection: the *Royal William* 1933 thirteen-cent stamp; the twenty-cent Harvester stamp of 1930, and the 1946 Peace issue series, which includes a farm scene in Ontario, a farm combine, a hydro-electric station, lumbering in B.C., and a train ferry to P.E.I.



Epilogue

Looking at Yesterday and To-day

"Not in vain the distance beacons. Forward, forward, let us range,
Let the great world spin forever down the ringing grooves of change."

ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON: *Locksley Hall*

Our story is told. But in order that we may understand what it means, it may be worth while to turn back and to compare Canada as it is to-day with Canada as it was, let us say, one hundred years ago.

To-day Canada stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and has a population of about fourteen million people. A century ago Canada was the name applied to the southern parts of the provinces of Ontario and Quebec. Its total population was only a fraction of that of the city of Toronto to-day. Toronto was a town of a few thousand inhabitants. Galt, Guelph, and Peterborough were newly formed settlements. Montreal, to-day the largest city in Canada, was less than a tenth of its present size. West of the Great Lakes was still the land of the Indian and the fur-trader except for the little settlement at Red River and a few families who had come from England to make new homes on Vancouver Island.

A century ago travel in this country was slow, difficult, and uncomfortable. There were no airplanes, no motor cars, no electric street cars, no bicycles, no hard-surfaced roads. Only a few miles of railway were in operation. The great age of railway building was just beginning. Although there were paddle-wheeled steamships on many of the lakes and rivers, nevertheless sailing-ships, flat-bottomed Durham boats, and canoes still carried passengers and freight. Travel by land was mostly by stage-coach in summer and by sleigh in winter. Driving over rough corduroy roads in the springless vehicles of that period was a trying experience. Travel was an ordeal to be endured, not a pleasure as it usually is to-day.

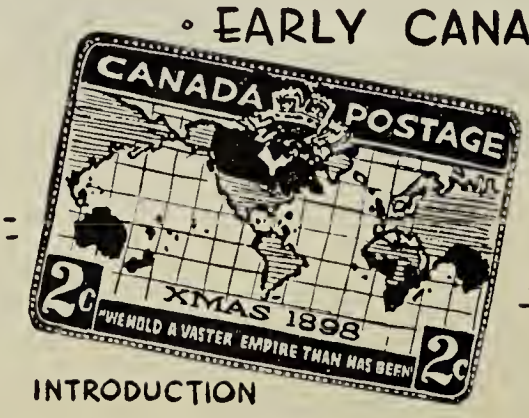
News travelled slowly in those days. There were no telephones, no radios. The telegraph had been invented but only a few of the larger places had telegraph offices. Except in the cities there were no daily newspapers. Personal and business messages were sent by word of mouth or by letter. The writing of letters played a much larger part in people's lives than it does to-day. Typewriters being unknown, all letters, even business letters, had to be written by hand. People took pride in writing "a beautiful hand".

Postage stamps were not introduced into Canada until 1851, when Canada took over the management of her own postal service and reduced the rates and improved the service. Before that time it cost ninepence to send a letter from Montreal to Quebec and several shillings to send one to England. There were post offices only in the larger towns and no postmen to deliver the mail. Anyone

• EARLY CANADIAN STAMPS •



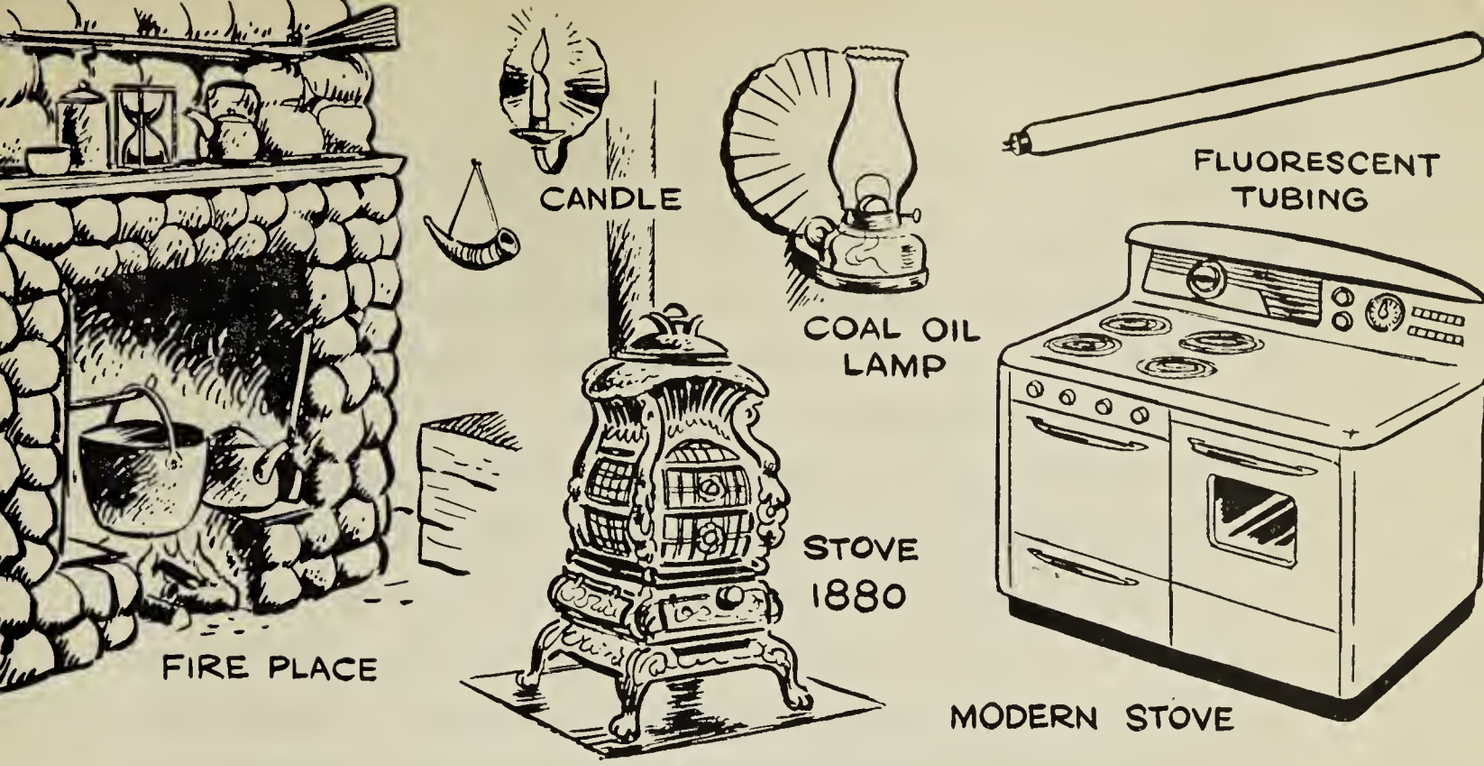
FIRST STAMP 1851



INTRODUCTION
OF IMPERIAL PENNY POST



MARKING QUEBEC'S 300th. ANNIVERSARY



who predicted that letters would ever be sent all over North America for five cents and that the farmer would some day have his mail delivered to his gate would have been considered a dreamer of impossible dreams.

Living conditions were much more primitive than now. Most houses were built of wood, either of logs or boards. Only in places such as Kingston, where there were stone quarries, were there many stone houses. There were no furnaces and very few stoves. Wood stoves were just coming into use in Canada, but gas stoves and electric stoves were unknown. As a rule the open fire-place, piled high with logs, served both for cooking and for heating the house. No one had ever heard of electric lights. Coal-oil lamps were not invented until 1857. Houses were lit by candles or by tallow-dips. Matches had been invented but many people still relied upon flint, steel, or tinder. The streets of the town were unlit, and people carried lanterns or torches when they went out at night.

The sanitary conditions of those days would shock modern Canadians. Even in a city such as Toronto,

garbage heaps and pig pens might be close to the houses. Toronto had a waterworks system but minnows sometimes poured from the tap. In most places water was carried from rivers and lakes in barrels or pails. Epidemics caused by polluted water were frequent.

The staple diet in the country districts was oatmeal porridge, bread, pork, and potatoes. Oranges and lemons were rare treats. Bananas, figs, and dates were almost unknown. There were no imported fresh fruits and vegetables to be bought during the winter. Dried and preserved fruits were put away during the summer and it was a matter of pride for each housewife to have enough to use until next season's supply came in. Vegetables from the garden were stored in root-cellars. When they were all used up, the family did without. Tea and coffee, which had to be imported, were so expensive that many settlers could not afford them.

Amusements were simple. There were no moving pictures, no radios, no television sets. Occasionally a travelling company from the United States brought a show to Montreal or Toronto. Sometimes a group of people put on a play or concert for the entertainment of their fellow townsmen. Though some boys and young men played lacrosse, a game which they had learned from the Indians, and soccer and cricket were played at some of the schools and colleges, few people played games. In some of the districts where Scots had settled, there were curling rinks. But baseball, hockey, tennis, and golf were still unknown in Canada. Riding, dancing, and skating were the chief forms of exercise enjoyed by Canadians. In the towns neighbours assembled to dance stately quadrilles and waltzes, while the country people preferred lively square dances, reels, jigs, and horn-pipes. The men and boys

often enjoyed a day's hunting or fishing, and some of the women took a pride in fine needlework, but even these occupations were closely connected with the struggle to provide food and clothing for the family.

In the rural areas "bees" gave the neighbours an opportunity for social gatherings. Even after logging and barn-raising bees became a thing of the past the neighbours gathered for the "sugaring-off" in the spring, for apple-paring and corn-husking in the fall.

At a paring bee the apples were cut and pared and hung on strings to dry. At a corn-husking bee the young men looked eagerly for an ear of corn with red kernels. Any young man lucky enough to find one had the privilege of kissing any girl at the party—if he could catch her. There were picking bees and carding bees to prepare the wool for spinning, and quilting bees to make up patchwork quilts.

Sometimes young and old gathered in the school house for a spelling bee. Sometimes a travelling singing teacher visited the settlement and people gathered in the church or in the schoolhouse for a singing school, to sing old songs and learn new ones under his direction.

Books were scarce. There were no public libraries and few people owned many books. In some towns there were circulating libraries where readers could borrow books if they could afford to pay for the privilege. Since books were scarce and expensive, they were highly prized. In many homes, it was the custom to read a book aloud in the evening while the family gathered round the fireside.

Many children had no opportunity to go to school and grew up unable to read or write. For many years there were no schools except those run by teachers who collected a fee from the parents in return for teaching the children.

In 1844, Dr. Egerton Ryerson was appointed Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada and town councils were made responsible for providing schools. In some districts the parents were still required to pay fees until 1871. In 1864 Dr. Charles Tupper persuaded the Legislative Assembly of Nova Scotia to pass an act requiring the people to pay taxes to maintain the schools of that province. In Lower Canada, there were many schools run by the Roman Catholic Church for the French-speaking children. It was, however, many years before acts were passed in the various provinces requiring every parent to see that his children went to school for a certain number of years. There were few books in the schools, and no blackboards. Goose-quill pens were still in use. Fountain-pens and even steel pen-nibs had not yet been invented. Paper was scarce and expensive. There were some schools to which the children brought birch-bark on which to do their arithmetic and their spelling.

Even churches and clergymen were few. In the larger towns there were clergymen of the Church of England

Some of the children in this schoolroom are using hornbooks. Check your dictionary for a description of a hornbook





The stove and the cracker barrel of the general store attracted more than trade: most of the community's problems were discussed here

and of the Church of Scotland. In Lower Canada there were Roman Catholic priests throughout the province. But the majority of people in the outlying districts in the other provinces had to rely upon the services of travelling Methodist and Baptist preachers, called "Circuit Riders", who rode on horseback from one district to another and held camp-meetings in the open air.

Business and industry were not as highly organized as they are to-day. There were few large companies. Most businesses were owned by one man or by partners. There were many general stores in which a great variety of goods was sold but there were no large department stores such as we have to-day, no chain stores, no groceterias. Most goods were sold on credit. The store-keeper had to make enough profit to provide against bad debts, for there were always some people who could not or would not pay their debts. Many farmers used no cash when they went to buy goods. The farmer's wife brought her butter and eggs to the local store-keeper and took her payments in goods.

Farmers paid the doctor or the lawyer very often in kind, bringing in a side of beef, or half a pig, or a load of wood. Prices were not marked on the goods in the shops and the farmer tried to get as much as he could for his produce, and pay as little as possible for what he bought, while the merchant tried to pay as little as possible and charge as much as he could for the goods he gave in exchange. It was thought clever to drive a hard bargain. It was not until 1869 that Timothy Eaton, an enterprising young Irish merchant, opened a dry-goods store near the corner of Queen and Yonge in Toronto, and revolutionized business methods by selling for cash only and marking his goods plainly so that everyone knew the price. He lived by his guarantee of "Goods Satisfactory or Money Refunded" which is known to-day from coast to coast. "You'll Enjoy Shopping at Simpson's" is another slogan which has been blazoned across Canada. In 1872 Robert Simpson, an immigrant lad, opened his unpretentious store in the same locality as Eaton's. A more recent development is the "chain store". A company builds a number of stores throughout the cities and towns, all alike in appearance and plan, and all handling the same merchandise. Some of these stores are in the residential districts and on the outskirts of the city where it is possible to provide large parking areas for "cash and carry" customers.

Some farm implements, some furniture, and some textiles were being manufactured in Canada, but most of the manufactured articles were imported from Britain or from the United States. Thousands of yards of cloth were still being woven by housewives on their own spinning-wheels and hand looms. As a rule every housewife made her own bread, her own soap, her own candles, and most of the clothes for her family.

Land was cheap. In many places it could still be bought for a few shillings an acre. Prices were low and so were wages.

Of our vast natural resources, only a fraction had been touched. Much of the land in Ontario which has since become good farm land was still covered by forest. So little of Canada's timber had been cut that the supply seemed inexhaustible, though a few years later Sir John A. Macdonald warned, "We are recklessly destroying the timber of Canada and there is scarcely a possibility of replacing it." Except for a few acres at Red River, the fertile fields of the prairie were still untouched by the plough. The gold-rush to British Columbia began in 1856, but it was years later that the great mineral wealth of Northern Ontario, Northern Quebec, Manitoba, and the Klondike was discovered. The oil of Alberta was still unknown. A century ago Canada stood at the edge of the new era of great development.

BOOKS TO READ

Here is a list of books which you may enjoy and which you will find helpful. You may find some of them in your school library. The number after the title indicates the unit for which these books will be most useful.

Across Canada, Clare Bice. Macmillan (XI)
Adventure North, Katherine Pinkerton. George J. McLeod (V)
Adventurers of England on Hudson Bay, Aileen Garland. Copp Clark (III)
Alberta, M. B. Ricker. Copp Clark (IX)
Americans Before Columbus, Elizabeth C. Baity. *Macmillan* (I)
Arctic Fur Trader, Philip Godsell. Macmillan (VI)
Authentic Letters from Upper Canada, ed. by T. Radcliff. Macmillan (V)

Beyond the Clapping Mountains, Charles E. Gillham. Macmillan (I)
Book of Canadian Achievement, Helen Palk. Dent (XI)
British Columbia, F. Boyes. Copp Clark (IX)
By Paddle and Saddle, Olive Knox. Macmillan (VI)

Canadian Citizenship, C. C. Goldring. Dent (VII)
Canadian Heroines of Pioneer Days, M. B. McKinley. Longmans Green (II)
Canadian West, Donalda Dickie. Dent (IX)
Canoe to Air-Liner, Margaret Shaw. Copp Clark (XI)
Cargoes on the Great Lakes, M. McPhedran. Macmillan (XI)
Changing Canada, Vol. 1: "Fish, Fur and Adventure", Mary Q. Innis. Clarke Irwin (II)

Dale of the Mounted, Joe Holliday. Thomas Allen (IX)
Dale of the Mounted in the Northwest, Joe Holliday. Thomas Allen (IX)
Day Before Yesterday in America, A. O. Bowden, C. G. de Porter, P. Cutright, W. W. Charters. Macmillan (I)

Discovery of Canada, Lawrence Burpee. Macmillan (I, III, VI)
Drums in the Forest, Allan Dwight. Macmillan (II, IV)

Evangeline, H. W. Longfellow. Macmillan (IV)

Fair World for All, Dorothy Canfield Fisher. McGraw Hill (X)
Famous Canadian Stories, Donald French. McClelland and Stewart (IV, V)
Finding New Homes in Canada (Highroads of Canadian History Series, Volume 2), E. Guillet and J. McEwen. Thomas Nelson (II)
Fox Island, Katherine Pinkerton. George J. McLeod (V)
Franklin of the Arctic, Richard Lambert. McClelland and Stewart (VI)
From Trees to Paper, Henry Lent. Macmillan (XI)
Further North, Katherine Pinkerton. George J. McLeod (V)

Golden Dog, William Kirby. Macmillan (IV)
Golden North, M. McPhedran. Macmillan (XI)
Great Island, Clare Bice. Macmillan (IX)
Great River and the Great Lakes, J. M. Scott. Copp Clark (XI)

He Went With Christopher Columbus, Louise Kent. Thomas Allen (I)
He Went With Marco Polo, Louise Kent. Thomas Allen (I)
He Went With Vasco da Gama, Louise Kent. Thomas Allen (I)
Here is Alaska, Evelyn Stefansson. Saunders (VI)
How Canada Grew Up, Donalda Dickie. Dent (VII)
How We Govern Ourselves, G. V. Ferguson. Ryerson (VII)

John Franklin (Men of Courage Series), L. Edna Walter, British Books (VI)
John A. Macdonald, The Young Politician, Donald Creighton. Macmillan (VIII)

Last of the Mohicans, J. F. Cooper. Dodd Mead (IV)
Little Giant, Olive Knox. Ryerson (VI)

Madeleine Takes Command, Ethel C. Brill. McGraw Hill (IV)
Manitoba, Agnes Florence. Copp Clark (IX)
Maria Chapdelaine, Louis Hemon. Macmillan (II)
Men of Valour, M. T. Good. Macmillan (X)
Mounty in a Jeep, T. M. Longstreth. Macmillan (IX)

North for Adventure, Richard Lambert. McClelland and Stewart (VI)

Our Land and Our Living, E. W. Reid and J. W. Hamilton. Dent (XI)
Our Story of Travel and Transport, J. M. Scott. Ryerson (XI)

Painted Arrow, Frances Gaither. Macmillan (II)
Panuck, Eskimo Sled Dog, Frederick Machetanz. Saunders (VI)
Pathfinders of North America, E. and M. Guillet. Macmillan (II, III, IV, VI)
Pathfinders of the West, Agnes Laut. Macmillan (VI)
Pauline Johnson and Her Friends, Walter McRae. Ryerson (I)
Picture Gallery of Canadian History, Vol. I. C. W. Jeffreys. Ryerson (I, II, III, IV)
Picture History of Canada, J. McEwen and K. Moore. Thomas Nelson (II, III, IV)
Pioneer Life, E. C. Guillet. Ontario Publishing Co. (V, XI)
Pioneer Settlements, E. C. Guillet. Ontario Publishing Co. (V, XI)
Pioneer Social Life, E. C. Guillet. Ontario Publishing Co. (V, XI)
Pioneer Travel, E. C. Guillet. Ontario Publishing Co. (V, XI)

Rebel on the Trail, Lyn Cook. Macmillan (VII)
Red River Shadows, Olive Knox. Macmillan (IX)
Roughing it in the Bush, Susanna Moodie. McClelland and Stewart (V)
Royal Canadian Mounted Police, E. Ritchie. Copp Clark (IX)
Royal Canadian Mounted Police, reprinted from *The Canada Year Book.* Dominion Bureau of Statistics (IX)

Saskatchewan, D. C. McLeod. Copp Clark (IX)
Scarlet Coat, Frances Gaither. Macmillan (III)
Scarlet Force, T. M. Longstreth. Macmillan (IX)
Shadows on the Rock, Willa Cather. McClelland and Stewart (II)
Story of Canada's Coastal Fisheries, M. C. Vernon. Copp Clark (XI)
Story of Newfoundland and Labrador, F. Briffett. Dent (IX)
Story of Oil in Canada, J. M. Scott. Copp Clark (XI)
Story of Our Canadian Northland, J. M. Scott. Copp Clark (VI)
Story of Pulp and Paper in Canada, W. S. McFarlane. Copp Clark (XI)
Story of the United Empire Loyalists, A. Trueman. Copp Clark (V)
Story of Wheat, Donalda Dickie. Copp Clark (XI)
Swampy Cree Legends, Charles Clay. Macmillan (I)
Tales and Trails of the Western Plains, N. MacVicar and I. Craig. Moyer (IX)
Tales the Totems Tell, Hugh Weatherby. Macmillan (I)
Talking Wire, O. J. Stevenson. Macmillan (XI)

Tall Timber, John Gough. Copp Clark (XI)
To You the Torch, (A Democracy Reader) Frank Burwell and F. J. Clute. Macmillan (VII)

Under Western Skies, A. S. Morton. Thomas Nelson (III, VI)
Ultima Thule, Further Mysteries of the Arctic, V. Stefansson. Macmillan (VI)
Unsolved Mysteries of the Arctic, V. Stefansson. Macmillan (VI)

West to the Setting Sun, H. Chalmers. Macmillan (V)
When Canada Was Young, Donalda Dickie. Dent (II)
When the Steel Went Through, S. P. Bone. Macmillan (IX)
With Sword and Trowel, W. S. Wallace. Macmillan (I, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII, IX, XI)

RYERSON READERS: Ryerson

Pathfinders to America: *Jacques Cartier* (I)
Hébert: *The First Canadian Farmer; Maisonneuve; Bishop Laval; Mère Marie de L'Incarnation; Marguerite Bourgeois; Jeanne Mance; Jean de Brébeuf; Père Jogues; Talon* (II)
Pierre Radisson; Père Marquette (III)
Frontenac; Pierre le Moyne D'Iberville; Madeleine of Verchères; The Acadians; Louisbourg; Marquis de Montcalm; Sieges of Quebec (French Regime) (IV)
Naval Warfare on the Great Lakes; Battlefields of 1813; Battlefields of 1814; Brant; Sir Isaac Brock; Tecumseh; John Graves Simcoe; The Strickland Sisters (V)
Hudson Bay to the Blackfoot Country; Samuel Hearne; Sir Alexander Mackenzie; David Thompson; Simon Fraser; Captain George Vancouver; Lord Selkirk; The North-West Company; Old Fort Prince of Wales; James Douglas (VI)
Joseph Howe; The Evolution of Responsible Government (VII)
Sir John A. Macdonald; Sir Georges Cartier; Thomas D'Arcy McGee; Sir Alexander Tilloch Galt; Sir Leonard Tilley; Sir Charles Tupper (VIII)
The Royal Canadian Mounted Police; Lord Strathcona; Sir Sandford Fleming; The Building of the C.P.R.; The Northwest Rebellion (IX)
The Story of Agriculture; The Search for Minerals; Canadian Fisheries; Canadian Forests; Ship Building, Railways, and Canals; The Story of Hydro (XI)

CHRONICLES OF CANADA: Copp Clark

The Dawn of Canadian History; The Mariner of St. Malo (I)
The Founder of New France; The Jesuit Missions; The Great Intendant (II)
The "Adventurers of England" on Hudson Bay; Pathfinders of the Great Plains (III)
The Acadian Exiles; The Passing of New France; The Winning of Canada (IV)
The United Empire Loyalists; Battlefields of 1812-14; Brant: The War Chief of the Six Nations; Tecumseh: The Last Great Leader of His People (V)
Adventures of the Far North; Pioneers of the Pacific; The Cariboo Trail (VI)
The Family Compact; The Rebellion in Lower Canada; The Tribune of Nova Scotia; The Winning of Popular Government (VII)
The Fathers of Confederation; The Day of Sir John A. Macdonald (VIII)
The Day of Sir Wilfrid Laurier (X)

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